SPEECH ACTIVITIES

Vol. VIII SPRING, 1952 No. 1

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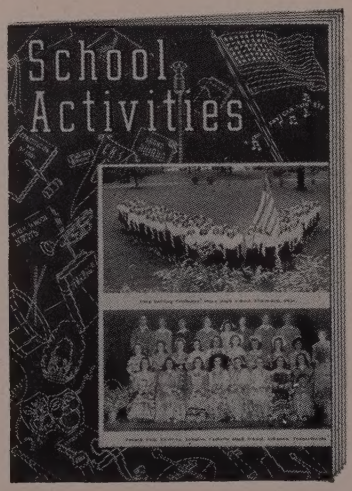

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Techniques of Analysis

By Joseph Schwartz, Marquette University

In every textbook on debate or debate and discussion, we invariably come across the chapter entitled "Exploring the Problem: Analysis" or "Analysis and Issues" or simply "Analysis." I have always thought this the most important chapter in the book, because it informs the whole procedure of debate—it gives one a philosophy of debate. The way one analyzes a problem provides the essence of the problem and the techniques for approaching it. Thus, when our debaters analyze, for instance, a league of nations, it matters greatly as to how the analysis is made. If they take the whole apart on the basis of its being a political society, certain factors are greatly emphasized. If they analyze a league of nations as a cultural or social society, certain other factors, dormant before, spring into importance. To be more specific, if the debaters are formal (i. e. scientific) or informal in their analysis, different problems are introduced in each case.

To begin my discussion, I should like to offer a definition of terms as I understand them. After a problem has been defined, it must be investigated. This investigation, in debate or in any field, is carried on by breaking the whole into its parts. I suggest further that in debate this process is an informal one. That is, debaters do not ordinarily make an exhaustive, impersonal division of the subject until every aspect has been fully considered. This essentially scientific or formal procedure is generally confined to the laboratory. Most debaters, as well as most writers or speakers on any subject, are generally informal. They are selective, and I might add, very wise in neglecting the prepared briefs that pretend to be scientific, but are not. Using a particular basis of classification, the writer, speaker, or debater prepares a certain approach or via that determines his method of taking the whole and breaking it into its component parts. The limitations of time, knowledge, and common sense make this imperative. This procedure which I have described is what I call analysis in debate.

There is in all of the texts I have examined a frightening uniformity of approach in that chapter devoted to analysis. All of them say essentially the same thing. The techniques of analysis seem to have ossified into a certain set of categories. They all wind up with this kind of statement:

> The key words in any debate are need and plan. If the Affirmative can provide a need, and a plan to meet the need, they have won the debate. If the Negative can disprove either need or plan, they have won the debate.

What a far cry this is from the inherent nobility of thoughtful argument! The record of the past has been completely violated by a pragmatic and expedient method for locating and analyzing any problem. We have become, in fact, a generation without truth, but instead a generation of many plans.

Debate as an extra-curricular activity of value has come in for its share of criticism. Its value has been seriously doubted by many. There is justice in their complaint; and the crux of the problem lies in our method of teaching debaters techniques of analysis. Wherein, then, are teachers of debate wrong, and what can be done by way of remedy?

I suggest that instead of training potential Hitler's or Stalin's |— amoral, indifferent political animals—we revise our system into a justifiable philosophy of debate; and we can do this only by shifting our emphasis in techniques of analysis from the expedient to the absolute.

When we say that need and plan are the essential elements of analysis, what exactly do we mean? There is an immediate problem; the problem demands an immediate solution. Practicability overwhelms speculation. As a result debate becomes more and more anti-intellectual. We no longer develop Aristotle's and Cicero's, but Caesar's. I need hardly add that the world has had enough of Caesar. The genuine province of the college debater, if we are fair with him, is the realm of the speculative, the world of the mind. If he is a wise young man, he gets to know this by his other related studies of the past, and drops debate at the end of his freshman year.

Look—what do we do to him? We

give him, by way of need and plan, a convenient formula—for robbing a bank, or for making a million dollars selling a non-essential plastic product, or for becoming a political or social czar. The record of the past fifty years has provided us with numerous and tragic examples of people with a need and a plan: Hitler, Al Capone, Lenin, the Great Gatsby, and Mao Tse-Tung. It must be, to borrow Lincoln's phrase, that such people are in the world. But to teach this kind of analysis as normal and acceptable seems to me to be courting philosophical disaster. In one text in that chapter entitled "Analysis" we find the following: The stock issues are broken down into:

I. What are the causes of the proposal?

II. Are the effects, or results, of the proposal adequate to meet the alleged needs?

III. Will the proposal be practicable?

Then the author says: "Sometimes other main issues are added:

IV. Is the proposal morally or legally justified?

V. Is the proposal the best solution?

Notice the word "sometimes." Sometimes these issues are considered. Yes, sometimes they are. The unfortunate thing is that need and plan as they determine our analysis are just as effective when the "bestness" or "morality" of the proposal is not considered. This question becomes especially important because our college and high school debaters regularly debate questions of far-reaching political and social importance, questions that usually center around the word "should." Any need can be established in ten or fifteen ways; just as any one of twenty-five or thirty plans can meet a need. Thus, the need for further labor legislation can be established by any number of special-interest pressure groups. And, as the past has shown in our country and Europe, there are many feasible plans for meeting this need. The German, French, English and American labor programs are all different, and yet each is tailor-made to fit the enthusiasms of certain expedient people with peculiar Messianic complexes. And perhaps, though I doubt it, this is the method of procedure for the political legislator. But it is not the method of the debater. He is like the philosopher, who points out a direction and whom others follow in action. The debater should analyze a question in these terms:

I. What is the principle involved in the actual situation?

II. How may the principle be applied to the actual situation?

The first of these seems to me to be infinitely more important than the second, though both fall within the area of investigation for the analytic debater. A need in fact is nothing more than a principle being affirmed or denied. And since the need can take many forms, we confuse the debater by telling him to pursue various chimera needs when he makes his analysis. A plan or proposal is nothing more than a principle in operation. And we are unfair to the debater when we tell him to find the ideal plan, when many plans may be good so long as they make the right principle operative. Why do we debate non-essentials, and neglect the essentials? Why do we forget truth, and pretend that action is truth?

If we mean to uphold any absolute, be it religious, ethical, or political, we must believe that the true techniques of analysis depend upon truth's being absolute, and not functional. Actions or proposals are functional. But truth, which gives meaning to action, is not. When we analyze a debate question that says that something "should" be done, we are obliged to investigate the principle behind the proposal. We are obliged to test the need by its reference to an absolute truth. Needs are isolated and often grow without reference to justice. Some of the most apparent needs in history have been the cries of "bread and circuses," "a place in the sun," "economic equality." But you will undoubtedly notice that the villains of history are precisely those men who had a plan for such unjustified and immoral needs. I suggest that we have been analyzing our debate questions backwards. We have taught our debaters to concentrate on the fringes of the essential.

At the present time, the techniques of analysis recommended by current textbooks are based, consciously or unconsciously, upon two factors:

I. The felt-need jargon of an outmoded behaviouristic philosophy of education.

II. The essentially anti-intellectual and anti-traditional methods of analysis of John Dewey.

Whether or not we are conscious of it, we are teaching our debaters to analyze a problem in debate in the same way that the behaviouristic psychologists have encouraged us to analyze human behaviour. A felt-need is present — the organism reacts to satisfy it. Has this not been the pattern of numerous high school and college debates that you have judged? Sometimes it is so obvious as to be ludicrous. I think now of the high school question of a few years ago on Socialized Medicine. The need was apparent—people got sick and died. The affirmative plan was just as apparent. They had a method for meeting the need—they outlawed death through socialized medicine. Practical felt-needs, buttressed by statistics and facts and figures, have made many intelligent members of your university community dismiss debate as foolish and time-wasting. But the college debate in which felt-need and plan do not appear quite so ludicrous is even more dangerous. It ingrains in the best of our college people a mechanical and animal reaction-type which we call analysis. So often I have the feeling that the affirmative is throwing a bone to the negative, who snarls and snaps at the bait.

The Dewey formula tells the analyzer to recognize the problem which at the moment is disturbing the status quo, to analyze the problem in its social setting, to suggest solutions for the difficulty, and to judge the solution on the basis of its practicability. I wonder what the Declaration of Independence would have looked like had the great problem which gave birth to that document been analyzed according to the Dewey formula? Action, not truth, is the objective of the Dewey formula. It is expedient and pragmatic. It insures fertility of planning, social orientation, and satisfied needs. It says that a need is a legitimate one because it is a need, not because the need is a result of a principle being enforced or neglected. The analysis is made in terms of a need growing out of environment or social evolution. This

is a philosophy of analysis for people who look with fear and suspicion upon thought and speculation. The Dewey formula, though contradictory, reads well. But when we see it in action, we must doubt it. The affirmative debater who says "My plan has sixteen advantages and yours only ten—adopt mine" is using the Dewey formula.

Briefly, I have suggested three things which an investigation of the current techniques of analysis has brought to mind.

(1) We should encourage our debaters to make an informal analysis of the problem, rather than a pretended and inadequate formal or scientific analysis.

(2) Analysis demands that we investigate the principle behind a proposal for action before we do anything else. Moreover this should be the chief concern of every debater's preliminary research and case presentation. The key word should be principle and not need-plan. This philosophy of analysis assumes a certain kind of thinking—not that the affirmative principle qua principle is better than the negative principle qua principle, but that a problem involving more than a mechanical or chemical reaction cannot be solved unless a principle implements the practical operation of a program in action.

(3) The argument of practicability, now regarded as a stock issue in analysis, is not an issue at all, and should not concern the debater. If a proposal is based upon a principle that is honest, truthful and good, a plan of action must be possible, and is indeed in the long run probable, though evil can thwart it.

Certain basic assumptions obviously guided my thinking:

I. That truth is absolute and not functional.
II. That absolute principles represent dominant ideals which action should attempt to achieve.

These two truths guided the destiny of our country. They should be good enough to guide us in debate. But so long as people believe there is no philosophy, but only philosophers, and that the pragmatic is superior to the absolute, I have little hope for my proposals. I cannot, however, help feeling sad at the abandonment of the entire tradition of rhetoric, at the dis-association of ethics and speech, and at our projected and frighteningly successful attempt to teach the best students in the University that might makes right. The debate textbooks of 1951 in their chapters on analysis teach sophistry, encourage shallowness, and deprive our finest students of their legitimate heritage of truth.

Historical Sketch of Intercollegiate Debating

Egbert Ray Nichols, University of Redlands

THE story of the coming of the first intercollegiate debate* is told by Ralph Curtis Ringwalt in the Forum Magazine. Intercollegiate debating, he says: "arose in a natural reaction against the lax conditions of the literary societies and against the lack of genuine interest in any form of public speaking which for many years existed at Harvard and Yale, and, in fact, at almost all Eastern colleges." Mr. Ringwalt writes that the literary societies, virile and energetic, had failed to keep pace with the changing ideals of the college world. In 1889 and 1900, according to his account, some young men entered Harvard University who had had some experience with joint debate in preparatory schools, and these young men proposed to the Harvard Union that debates be held with other colleges. "For two years", continues Mr. Ringwalt, these men were voted down with considerable ridicule. In 1891, however, one of their number, Mr. F. W. Dallinger . . took occasion, in replying to a letter from the Secretary of the Yale Union, to set forth the advantages of a series of debates between Yale and Harvard. Nothing came of this proposal that year: but the following autumn, Yale sent a challenge for a joint discussion, and the opponents of the scheme in the Harvard Union having been graduated or won over, the proposal was at once accepted. Representatives of the two universities met at Springfield and arranged for two debates, the first to take place at Cambridge on January 14, 1892.

"On this day, therefore, Harvard and Yale met on the platform in the first of modern intercollegiate debates. The proposition was: Resolved, that a young man casting his first ballot in 1892 should vote for the nominees of the Democratic party. Yale had the affirmative. The late ex-Governor William E. Russell, of Massachusetts, acted as presiding officer. Though, in accordance with the agreement, there were no judges, and, consequently, no formal decision was given as to which side proved itself superior in the contest, the meeting was very satisfactory; the audience was enthusiastic, and the debating creditable.

"The second, or return debate, which was held at New Haven on March 25 following, had still greater success. Dr. Chauncey M. Depew presided, and on the platform were many distinguished alumni of Yale. After the debate a new and interesting feature was added. The meeting was given a distinctly social turn by a banquet provided by the Yale literary societies in honor of the speakers."

The news of these auspicious beginnings of a new intercollegiate activity spread rapidly to other colleges and universities, and within the next two or three years intercollegiate debating had spread from coast to coast. At present we may look back upon practically six decades or a half century of intercollegiate debating in American colleges. The prograss of academic debate falls into natural divisions corresponding to these decades, so a brief characterization of each decade gives a fair survey of the history of the activity.

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*That this debate is historically first as an intercollegiate debate has been disputed since this article was first written in early 1936. The claim is that colleges of the Middle West held a prior intercollegiate debate. Details are not at hand at the moment.

1. Forum 22:633, Jan. 1897, "Intercollegiate Debating", by R. C. Ringwalt.

The First Decade, Foundations

The period from 1892 to 1902 was one of foundations and beginnings. It was concerned chiefly with building up the techniques and the machinery of the new activity. The scheme of debate used previously by the college literary societies was for the most part abandoned. The number of debaters on a team was changed from two to three. All speakers were given two appearances, a constructive speech and a rebuttal speech, the negative leading in rebuttal. The time of the speeches varied from ten to fifteen minutes for constructive speeches and from five to seven for rebuttal speeches. This plan of intercollegiate debate, whether having two or three speakers on a side, constitutes the University plan of intercollegiate debating, often erroneously called the Oxford plan by persons now in the field of American college debating who should know better. This plan of debate is quite different from the scheme of debate employed by the English universities. The English universities also use a different type of stating the proposition or "question" for debate. Where in the United States we say: Resolved, that — the English say: This House approves — Differences merely begin here as the concepts of debate in the two nations are quite unlike. Yet, they do not differ so seriously as to defeat international debating which has been carried on between England and America for at least two decades or more.

The type of debating in America now changed from the old expressions of opinion on such subjects as "the pen is mightier than the sword" to resolutions concerned with political, social, economic, and educational policies and problems. A board of judges was introduced, composed of an odd number such as three or five, to listen and decide which side had won the debate. At first the judges were allowed to consult with each other, but it was found that this merely began a second debate; experience soon abolished this custom, and each judge voted separately and without consultation with the other judges. Thus the split decision and the unanimous decision were added to the technical debate terms. The wisdom of this change was demonstrated by a happening at Princeton University in the early days.

Professor Thomas C. Trueblood, who was present on this occasion at Princeton, describes it as follows: "It was once our pleasure to attend a Yale-Princeton debate over which Ex-President Cleveland presided. After the debate was over, the judges were in consultation an hour and twenty minutes, during which time the long-suffering Cleveland was repeatedly asked for a speech, but stubbornly declined to comply with the request. The audience were obliged to entertain themselves as best they could, and listen to the Yale and Princeton yells, songs and catcalls prepared for the occasion and improvised at the time.[2]

The machinery of debate was simple at first. A college sent a challenge to another college as Yale had done. The challenge was accepted and the challenger sent a proposition and gave the challenged choice of sides. The challenger usually entertained the debate, and sent a list of judges from which the challenged selected two judges. The challenged sent a list of judges to the challenger from which one judge was selected. Each college had the right to rank the two lists in order of its preference or to protest any name on the lists submitted by the opposing college. The host college usually invited the judges once selected, and proceeded with invitations according to the preferences indicated until a board of judges was obtained.

Soon three or more colleges began to associate themselves in organizations or leagues for the purpose of carrying on the annual debate relations. The first leagues were merely agreements to meet each other in single debates, not necessarily on the same proposition. An example was the Harvard-Yale-Princeton arrangement. Each met the others annually, thus each college entertained a debate. Soon four college leagues arose. There were two debates in the first round, and then the winners met each other in a second round often on a different proposition. Debate did not progress beyond these simple arrangements in the first decade.

The first book on Argumentation and debate by George Pierce Baker appeared in 1895, and was for many years the standard text on argumentation. It was revised in 1905 with Henry B. Huntington as associate author and continued its influence on the debating world. Early debate inclined to the legal aspects outlined by these authors, and placed great emphasis on the contest or intercollegiate sport element. The early days of debate were days of genuine enthusiasm both for the debaters and audiences. The debaters worked for months reading and gathering arguments at the college library and other sources of material, writing their speeches and practicing the delivery of them. They compiled rebuttal material and held endless discussion with one another and the coach or professor in charge. The intense rivalry engendered by a debate made it one of the great events of the college year. The audiences were large and almost invariably partisan. For that reason the judges were instructed to find for the side doing the better debating in their judgment. This became necessary to keep the judges from taking sides on the question. They were to judge the debating, not the question at issue. In the early days all enthusiasms were carefully nurtured and developed, and often accompanied by cheering sections. It was a great honor to "make the tem", and usually the best speakers in each college entered the try-outs.

2. Education 27:390, March 1907, "Forensic Training in the Colleges." Thomas C. Trueblood.

The Second Decade, 1903-1913. Rising Interest

The second period of intercollegiate debating was marked by a passion for organization and a consistent desire for improvement in the conduct of debate. Many interesting things happened in this decade. One of the first was the invention of the triangular debate league in which each of three colleges prepared an affirmative and a negative team and a debate was held at each of the three colleges on the same evening on the same subject. For a time this debate plan was used almost to the exclusion of all other forms except the single debate between two rival colleges. Soon it was discovered that five colleges could maintain a double or two-round triangular, then came the seven-college league, each meeting all the other colleges in three rounds. The dual or double debate began to displace the single debate so that each college could have a debate the same night, and each college could have an affirmative and a negative team at work. The

negative usually traveled to the rival college.

Mere organization form, however, was not the only improvement made in debate at this time. Those engaging in debate wanted proper instruction and set up a demand for public speaking teachers to take charge of the debating activity. Also there was a movement for better financing of debate. Gradually college administrations heeded these requests and provided teachers to train their students in debating, oratory and public speaking, thus the activity passed out of the hands of the literary societies and college unions and student control save for the financial end. The average college began to include debate in its student activity fund and gave it a percentage or an appropriation so that it no longer had to depend upon admission charges, silver offerings, or the beneficence of friends. The demand for college credit for debating soon led to regular classes in debate in the Speech Curriculum.

The publication of debate and argumentation texts and debate aids soon arose to meet the growing need for technical literature. The Briefs for Debates[3], Pros and Cons[4], Specimens of Argumentations[5], and the first published debates[6], belong to this period. The educational periodicals and some of the popular magazines occasionally carried articles on debate.

The founding of the debate and oratory honorary societies also belong to this period. First in the field was Delta Sigma Rho, planned in correspondence between Professors E. E. McDermott of the University of Minnesota and H. E. Gordon of the University of Iowa, and finally launched at a meeting held on the 13th of April, 1906, in Chicago. Professor Thomas C. Trueblood of the University of Michigan presided at this meeting composed of delegates from the universities known in general parlance as the "Big Ten." The organization began modestly but in the course of time, three or four years later, had its constitution, ritual, and plan of organization perfected and had expanded to include most of the leading universities of the country.

The next organization of this type was Tau Kappa Alpha, organized in 1908 at a meeting of representatives of Butler and Wabash Colleges and De Pauw held in the office of Lieut. Governor Hugh Th. Miller of Indiana in the capitol building at Indianapolis. The original idea of the organization was to operate as state chapter units, but later this idea was abandoned in favor of the local chapter plan.

The next organization was a professional society, Phi Alpha Tau, about 1911 or 1912. It was organized in Emerson College of Expression in Boston, Mass. The idea of this organization was to include, along with speakers, those engaged in dramatic productions and acting. The society was not planned on an honor basis but on a professional idea with more attention to social fraternity customs. This organization did not expand very rapidly, for the honor society with honor key seemed to be more in keeping with the popular demand at this time.

In 1912 a third honor organization, designed especially for the colleges, both small denominational colleges and state colleges, was planned in correspondence by John A. Shields, Ottawa University, Kansas; Edgar A. Vaughn, Kansas State College; and E. R. Nichols, Ripon College, Wisconsin, and launched in Jan. 1913 with about five or six chapters. This organization, Pi Kappa Delta, was destined to become the largest and most active of debate honor societies. It began with the idea of granting degrees and orders to its members, as they advanced in debate, oratory, and speech contests while in college. It granted local chapters. By 1920 it was holding national contests at its biennial conventions. It grew slowly and conservatively at first, previous to the First World War, but after that expanded rapidly. Later it developed the province idea and organized sectionally as well as locally and nationally. Frankly it began on the Masonic idea of degrees carrying honors that would show by jewelling its honor key.

All of these societies began publishing quarterly magazines before 1915, and have continued these publications to date except Phi Alpha Tau[7]. Also they have fostered most of the movements for the progress of debate which have arisen since their founding.

Third Decade, 1913-1923.
Rapid Growth and Expansion.

Debate, during the first two decades, had remained within what would now be considered most modest bounds. Many colleges did not engage in debate at all, and among those which did from one to five or six debates a year was a typical schedule. Early in the third decade, however, colleges began to extend their schedules beyond the regular local league debates. The debate trip arose. The foundation for the debate trip had been laid in the new financial arrangements provided for debate, and in the interstate character of some of the debate leagues and triangulars. From a trip to a neighboring state for a league debate, it was not a far step to include another college debate en route. Moreover, the desire to break away from provincial and local contacts was in the air in the student world, for about this time the athletic trip also began and such significant events as the New Year's Day football game in the Rose Bowl in Pasadena, California.

The first recorded instance of a trip in which the travelling team met more than one opposing team at different colleges is that of the University of Denver in April, 1913, when Ottawa University, Ottawa, Kansas, was met on the 16th and William Jewell College, Liberty, Missouri, on the 18th The first long trips were those of Northwestern College of Law to the University of Southern California Law School at Los Angeles, California, the debate being April 9, 1913, and the dual trip debates between Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa, and the University of California Law School, the debates being held at each institution April 21, 1913. Soon many other extended trips were scheduled by various colleges, one of the most significant being the transcontinental trip of the team from Columbia University to Los Angeles in 1916, several debates being scheduled on the way. A second significant trip was that of the University of Redlands to Topeka, Kansas, to the first Pi Kappa Delta Convention held in the spring of 1916 on the Washburn College campus. Redlands debated

3. Brookings and Ringwalt, Briefs for Debate, 1911.

4. Craig, Pros and Cons, 1897 and subsequent revisions.

5. Baker, George Pierce, Specimens of Argumentation.

6. Pearson, Paul M., Intercollegiate Debates, 1910 Series continued by E. R. Nichols.

7. The Gavel, Delta Sigma Rho, 1915—date; The Forensic, Pi Kappa Delta, 1915—date; The Speaker, Tau Kappa Alpha, 1915—date.

the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, and Southwestern College, Winfield, Kansas, on the way. The Pi Kappa Delta meeting at Topeka, Kansas, was an organizing convention. Sixteen chapters sent representatives, and the foundations were perfected for Pi Kappa Delta's succeeding career of growth and service to forensics in America. Egbert Ray Nichols, director of debate at Redlands and founding president of Pi Kappa Delta carried on the correspondence and plans that launched Pi Kappa Delta.

This decade also saw the beginning of the international debate trip, the first one being that of Bates College, Lewiston, Maine, to Oxford University, England in 1921. The following year, Oxford sent a team to the United States. From this time on, International debating has been a regular part of the American debating season. The teams from Great Britain, Oxford, Cambridge, make extended trips across the United States including debates at the rate of thirty to fifty a barnstorming tour from New York to California. One team from Germany made a debate trip to America. American colleges have in at least two instances made debate trips around the world, debating in Hawaii, Japan, China, Australia and New Zealand, India, and England en route. This development, however, belongs to the next decade, having only its beginning toward the end of this one.

The third period of debate was marked by the beginning of unrest and criticism. As debates increased in number and the activity grew in importance, certain colleges and universities emerged as particularly successful in speaking contests. As in athletics much of this success began to be ascribed to coaches, and two attacks began — one on the methods of coaching debate and the other on contest debating itself. It was not until the next decade that the main criticism and the main movements for change and reform arrived, but the beginnings belong to the third period. For instance, critic decisions and audience judging, also open forum and non-decision debating, were first begun between 1915 and 1923. The most important contribution of the period, however, was in the criticism of debate that appeared in proefssional and educational magazines. Here the foundations were laid for the agitation over decision and non-decision debating which came later. Also foundations were laid for many new forms and methods which entered debate during the subsequent period. The most notable criticism of American debating was that which appeared in The Outlook[12] in the fall of 1922 accompanying the beginning of international debating. American debating was compared most unfavorably with English debating, and the Outlook took the position in favor of persuasive speaking and the debating of opinions and beliefs rather than statistics (which of course was a slighting way of referring to the research and argumentative work based upon evidence and logical reasoning.) Theodore Roosevelt's famous attack upon college debating also appeared in this magazine[13]. His objection was particularly to debating both sides of a question. He also objected to the glibness and insincerity which he thought obtained from the process of academic debate as practiced in America. Several answers appeared, the most notable by Professor James Milton O'Neill, then of the University of Wisconsin[14].

The Fourth Decade, 1923-1933
Unrest and Reform

The chief dissatisfaction with debating came to be levelled at the decision by the beginning of the fourth period. This dissatisfaction with the decision or contest debating took two main courses. First, a considerable group of debate coaches and their colleges abandoned the contest idea and took up non-decision debating, open forum debating and extension debating. The English style of debating was adopted in part by many of them, who accepted the tenet of debating beliefs and opinions rather than evidence leading to conviction. This group also was influenced by the educational propaganda for group and panel discussion, symposium, and convention work cast in legislative form. Under the influence of these new forms several speech teachers even gave up non-decision debating.

Second, the group still adhering to decision debating began a sort of experimental stage in which all types of judging debates and all sorts of new inventions in debating were tried, such as Critic decisions, shift of opinion audience decisions, the composite type of judging, split team debating, open forum debating with decisions, the Oregon plan[15] and various other cross-question types. The direct clash plan was also invented during this period[16]. The most significant change, however, was in the style and method of debating. The committed constructive speech began to be abandoned, and was succeeded by extemporaneous debating. The one thing that persisted was the tenacious hold upon evidence and logical reasoning—the argumentative style. No matter what new form or idea was being tried, there was a steadfast refusal to go over to the debating of opinion and beliefs. Many colleges continued to debate the old way, gradually changing to the extempore type, but taking little notice of the new forms and types of debate.

However, at last came a new invention which took the interest of the entire group still engaged in contests debate — the tournament[17]. Here was a form in which one team could have as many debates in from one to three days as the entire squad had a few years before in an entire season. Also all the teams in the squad could be entered. A debate season now began to number forty to a hundred debates, instead of a maximum of ten or twelve for a single team. Emphasis upon a single decision in a single contest was gone, and was transferred to emphasis on a creditable performance for a team for the season, or for the entire squad, or a group of teams for an entire season. Rivalries diminished and with them went many of the old evils that had occasioned the attack upon decision debating, for instance, the old jockeying over judge lists.

Pi Kappa Delta popularized the tournament by taking it up nationally at its biennial convention. The provinces of the order followed in their annual meets, and soon tournaments were in progress all over the country. Many different types of tournaments then developed. The movement was so popular that some colleges which had aban-

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12. Outlook 132:55, Sept. 13, 1922.
13. The Outlook 103:406, Feb. 22, 1913. Also 104:271 Jl. 7, 1913; 132:54 Sept. 13, 1922.
14. The Gavel of Delta Sigma Rho, V. 7, p. 3, June 1924.

Ethics in Contest Debating*

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ADVERSE criticisms of interscholastic debating from Theodore Roosevelt's day to the present have emphasized lapses in morality and fair play, according to the individual censor's self-proclaimed ethical standards. Even a cursory review of the titles of articles on debating which have appeared in educational literature during the past twenty-five years reveals some serious charges: "Fostering Dishonesty,"(1) "The Mind- Bedevilment Caused by Debates," (2) and perhaps the most notorious example of all—"Debating: Sophism Institutionalized". (3)

Recognizing the influence, if not the validity, of such commentaries; many authors of articles and textbooks on argumentation, discussion, and debate have included some appropriate remarks on the subject of ethics. Usually such comments urge the debater scrupulously to avoid any deliberate, unintentional, or inadvertent violations of implicit and explicit criteria of morality in contest debating.

Assuming that transgressions in the code of fair play do occur; we first must ask: why? Why should there be a problem of ethics in debating to concern debaters, worry their coaches, and bother professional educational reformers? At least part of the answer is in the nature of contest debating itself. For in addition to being an exercise in applied logic and public speaking, contest debating has one element in common with all competitive sports: (4) a winning and a losing team. Hence, the motivation for student participation in debate is based upon other goals in addition to the lofty but sometimes unexciting intellectual challenges and rewards. The exact nature of this non-intellectual attraction probably varies according to the psychological drives paramount in the individual debater and the specific characteristics of the forensic situation in which he finds himself. Any careful conclusions must await more systematic observational and experimental studies of the inducements to engage in and to win intercollegiate contest debates.

Among other data, we need further research of the type now in progress by Professor Murphy of Western Michigan College on values received from forensic training. This study seeks to determine what former college debaters think about the effects of debating on their ability to weigh evidence, freedom from prejudice, tendency to use valid evidence and reasoning, and sincerity or honesty.

Fortunately, we do have access to some data which suggest somewhat inconclusively certain generalizations concerning college leaders in general, and debaters in particular. Sward, (5) in a doctoral thesis, reports the results of an experimental study of collegiate leaders. Measured by self-ratings and rankings of fellow-students, campus leaders in activities were found to be more extroverted, i. e., they displayed more persistant craving for prestige, ego-expansion, and popularity than did their introverted, non-leader friends. In a more recent study, Sward suggested that (6) women were influenced to participate and excel in debate because of a striving for role and status. On the other hand, he found that most men debaters were prompted by a desire to compensate for marked inferiority feelings.

These inconclusive experiments and surveys indicate some partial reasons for participation in debate and suggest by implication why certain personality types might deliberately or inadvertently by-pass generally recognized standards of fairness in debating. It is, however, more likely that the majority of ethical infractions occur because debaters and their coaches simply are not aware of certain practices as being violations of the code of fair play. Whether the periodic compilation and publication of codes of conduct in debate serve as valuable reminders or mere useless sermons-in-print is a pertinent question. Apparently most authors of articles and textbooks on debate feel that they must pay more than lip service to the ideal. Surveying fourteen of the most widely known books beginning with Foster's Argumentation and Debating, I have noted almost complete unanimity in listing unethical practices in debate.

1. The most universally condemned practice is the conscious and deliberate fabrication of evidence. Most writers profess to believe that few debaters are so mean as to ascribe the name of a recognized authority to evidence which they themselves have produced. But most debaters and coaches will admit that while such a practice is infrequent, it does exist. I shall always remember, for example, the wily members of one college debate squad who quoted profusely from two fictitious publications: "The Rocky Mountain Gazette" and the "Kansas Statesman". These brazen gentlemen even went so far as to employ two fake pages as visual aids in order to impress the judge and audience with the authenticity of their evidence.

2. A closely related procedure is what is usually labelled "quoting out of context"—i. e., lifting words out of their normal order in the original quotation in order to pervert their meaning. As a matter of fact, more than wording is involved; as Thomas emphasized in his 1910 Manual of Debate:

> "Assuming that no debater would consciously distort an authority in a quotation, the fact yet remains, that not to do so, uncon-

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*A paper read at the sectional meeting on "Evaluating Intercollegiate Debate and Discussion Standards" at the annual convention of the Speech Association of America on December 29, 1951.

1. "Fostering Dishonesty," editorial, School Review. (1926) 34:331-332.

2. Mangun, V. L., "Mind-bedevilment Caused by Debates," Educational Review. (1927) 74:155-161.

3. Mangun, V. L., "Debating: Sophism Institutionalized," Educational Review. (1927) 74:195-200.

4. See especially the following: Arnold, J. H., The Debater's Guide, Handy Book Corp., Harrisburg, Pa., 1923, pp. 30-31; Foster, W. T., Argumentation and Debating, Houghton Mifflin, Boston, 1908, p. 281; Lahman, C. P., Debate Coaching, Wilson, N. Y., 1930, p. 15; Nichols, E. R. and Baccus, J. H., Modern Debating, Norton, N. Y., 1936; and O'Neill, J. M., Laycock, C., and Scales, R. L., Argumentation and Debate, Macmillan, N. Y., 1928, p. 373.

5. Sward, K., An Experimental Study of Leadership, Ph.D. thesis, University of Minnesota, 1929.

6. Sward, K., "Temperament and Direction of Achievement," Journal of Social Psychology. (1933) 4:406-429.

7. Thomas, R. W., A Manual of Debate, American, N. Y., 1910, p. 95.

sciously, requires some knowledge of the general attitude and spirit of the author quoted. The debater should satisfy himself that not only the language, but the spirit of the passage, as well, is in his favor before quoting it in support of his position." (7)

In the conduct of the debate itself, numerous questions of debate etiquette with ethical implications arise:

3. The authors of Persuasion and Debate (8) point up the unfairness and discourtesy of attacking the personalities of the opposition instead of sticking to the issues of the case. And Ewbank and Auer (9) list as two of the "departures from the code of fair play" " . . . misquoting an opponent . . . " and " . . . attacking the opponent instead of the argument . . . ".

4. If charts or other forms of visual aids are used, both sides should have equal visual access. The practice of displaying a chart visible only to the audience and judge and not to the opposition, should be severely condemned. "To use any device in aiding a team which the other team could not have anticipated or reasonably expected is (equally) unethical." (10)

5. The relationship of coach to debater is often open to justifiable censure. The authors of How to Debate quote the following rule limiting the scope of coaching to " . . . . aid in outlining the arguments, citing sources of information; correcting errors in English; and suggestions as to delivery . . . " (11). There appears to be general agreement with the principle that "coaching from the sidelines" ought to be outlawed. A few unscrupulous coaches even employ an elaborate system of signals (e. g. moving to another seat, scratching the nose, etc.) to indicate that a certain trick argument or other strategem should be used.

6. The matter of strategy has aroused controversy. Some writers remind us that if debate is a competitive enterprise then strategy is inevitable and desirable. Conversely, Immel and Whipple deplore overemphasis in this direction, saying:

> "Let us not concern ourselves too much with so-called 'debate strategy.' The best strategy in debate is absolute honesty and clear thinking . . . A wise judge will see through tricks . . . He will respect a solid case as opposed to a trick case." (12)

However, Willhoft remarks that " . . . a fair use of strategy is entirely commendable, but meanness is anathema . . . " (13). Summers reminds us: "In using strategy, particularly the form intended to weaken opponents' prestige, be sure that your attacks are made in a friendly, good-natured way . . . " (14). Collins and Morris list a number of unfair tricks such as the use of the "delayed plan" (15) when there has not been adequate preparation for it in earlier constructive speeches, or by closing a speech with a rapid listing of questions which the opposition cannot copy, let alone have time to answer. (16)

7. While malpractice is undoubtedly rare, the unethical selection and conduct of judges is an especially regrettable ethical lapse. "A debate should be won by the debating and not before the debating begins." (17) "Judges should be secured who are as nearly impartial as possible." (18) Nichols and Baccus point out that there is even an ethical dimension involved in the treatment of judges as persons:

> "Happily the old days of trying to influence the decision of the judge through entertainment are gone . . . After the debate it is considered discourteous to put the judge on the defensive for his decision or to start an argument . . . The decision of the judge is accepted as final and the matter is closed . . . The best psychology to maintain toward the judge is that he is an honest man with no ulterior motives, who may be counted on to do his very best . . . As long as contest debating is maintained there must be judges and judge systems . . . Good sportsmanship demands that everyone concerned be trusted to do his duty fairly and honestly, and that there be no crabbing over the results." (19)

Perhaps the basic charge which still faces us is that " . . . debating is characterized by trickiness and insincerity, and is not the preparation which it ought to be for the real contests of life beyond commencement." What shall we as teachers do about it? William Trufant Foster's answer in 1908 is applicable today:

> "Some people would adopt the heroic method of abolishing intercollegiate debating. That is too easy. If we were to do away with all college activities which fall short of the ideal, we would have nothing left." (20)

Henry Lee Ewbank offers a positive suggestion:

> "Courses in argumentation, properly taught, and contest debating, properly conducted, provide valuable training for leadership in our society . . . It becomes no small part of our obligation to see that students develop ideals and a sense of responsibility as well as skill in speech." (21)

8. Collins, G. R., and Morris, J. S., Persuasion and Debate, Harper, N. Y., 1927, p. 184.
9. Ewbank, H. L., and Auer, J. J., Discussion and Debate, Crofts, N. Y., 1947, pp. 486-487.
10. Willhoft, W. O., Modern Debate Practice, Prentice-Hall, N. Y., 1929, p. 307.
11. Summers, H. B., Whan, F. L., and Rousse, T. A., How to Debate, Wilson, N. Y., 1950, pp. 342-346.
12. Immel, R. K., and Whipple, R. H., Debating for High Schools, Ginn, Boston, 1929, p. 39.
13. Willhoft, op. cit., p. 304.
14. Summers, H. B., Contest Debating, Wilson, N. Y., 1934, p. 180.
15. Collins and Morris, op. cit., p. 191.
16. Ibid., pp. 199-200.
17. Willhoft, op. cit., p. 306.
18. Nichols, A., Discussion and Debate, Harcourt, Brace, N. Y., 1941, pp. 109-111.
19. Nichols and Baccus, op. cit., pp. 350-351.
20. Foster, op. cit., pp. 324-325.
21. Ewbank, H. L., "What's Right with Debate.

Re-examination of Strategic Debate

By Malcolm Sillars
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IN the Autumn,| 1951, issue of Speech Activities Mrs. Nina D. Woodward discussed the book Strategic Debating by Roy Harlan, Jr.[1] This article raises again the question of the use of strategy in educational debate. This book, which caused questioning about the ethics of intercollegiate debating and added to the criticism against academic debating in 1940, forms a good basis of comparison with some of the more recent statements about debate strategy.

In the preface to their book, Practical Debating, Professors Courtney and Capp point out,

1. Nina D. Woodward, "Strategic Debating", Speech Activities, Autumn, 1951, Vol. VII, No. 2, pp. 71-73. A review of Strategic Debating by Roy E. Harlan Jr., Chapman and Grimes, 1940.

"At best there is a nice distinction between strategy and unfair tactics. One should present the arguments for the side he champions in the most favorable light consistent with actual conditions. Unfortunately, strategy often conceals and confuses rather than enlightens. The finest strategy shows itself in the presentation of the best case possible on the side of the proposition which one upholds. An objective study of strategic devices is unnecessary, and in some instances may prove detrimental. The most effective strategy is careful preparation."[2]

To bring these two books together is obviously impossible. When Mrs. Woodward, in reviewing Strategic Debating, must mention twice that the particular case under consideration is "bad statesmanship but good debating" it is obvious that the philosophy of the book is in disagreement with Professors Courtney and Capp and most other writers in the field. However, it is possible, to find a basis for the use of strategy without violating the ethical responsibilities of the speaker.

It will be helpful first, I believe, to define strategy. In the section quoted above, Courtney and Capp refer to the study of strategic devices. However, strategic devices are only one phase of strategy. George Musgrave mentions five phases of strategy. There are only two of these (3 and 4) which the writer would consider to be in the classification of specific devices. They are: "1. The presentation of an unexpected plan or counterplan, 2. The presentation of an unexpected advantage or disadvantage in the conventional proposal, 3. The acceptance of the negative counterplan by the affirmative in the middle of the debate, 4. The use of traps of various kinds, and 5. The use of those forms of judge, audience and opposition psychology not based on surprise."[3] It is easy to see that there is more to strategy than strategic devices. Strategy, broadly considered, is the limitation, selection, arrangement and delivery of arguments in the actual debate. With the exception of definition, which should not enter the controversy, everything in debate demands some element of strategic decision.

Every debater must make strategic decisions. It cannot be avoided. The effective debater also cannot avoid his responsibility to the ethical element of persuasion. In the case of Mr. Harlan's book, the ethical is violated in several of his examples. These are cases which depend upon the negative's acceptance of a loaded definition or some other such technique. These are strategic devices which were utilized for the sole objective of winning in the formal contest. The fine record of wins compiled by Mr. Harlan and his colleague were apparently garnered at the expense of poor teams. This is supported in several cases by the foolish ways that the opposition fell into "traps". The least that we can say is that, the value of the strategic device when used without regard for the basic facts of the proposition has not even been established as valuable in winning from good teams. The question of debate with the primary objective of winning doesn't need to be discussed.

This does not mean that Professors Courtney and Capp are right in their refusal to discuss strategy in their book. Their statement that "the finest strategy shows itself in the presentation of the best case possible on the side of the question which one upholds" would not be objected to by anyone. However, this statement implies that there have to be strategic decisions. There are some broad questions of strategy which every team must decide within the ethical limits of debate. The selection of the "best case possible" is merely a broad definition of strategy. Being more specific then, what are some of the strategic decisions which every debater must make in order to present this "best case"?

1. Selection of the basic approach —In every question there are several possible approaches. Shall we take an economic approach, a political approach, a social approach or a combination? Will World Federation, for instance, stop war or will it just more thoroughly integrate nations which in time will be better able to prevent war. One team that I heard on the affirmative of the World Federation question several years ago pointed out that there was no guarantee that World Federation would prevent war just as there was no such guarantee in the American Federation, but that a world civil war like our war between the states would be fought for something concrete. In this case, a basis of law and order in principle was the need, not the assured practice of law and order. In other words, the affirmative was taking on a need which was not the generally accepted need without shirking the basic responsibility.

2. Selection of arguments — It is impossible for the debater to use every possible argument. The very limitations of time restrict this. Above and beyond this, he must decide, does the use of a given argument, although opposing the opposition, also hurt his own case? In the light of the approach decided upon, which are the stronger arguments?

3. Position of clash—Most debate coaches advocate that teams seek some basic clash. The writer feels that the advantage of the argument goes to the team which first sees and forces the clash. This demands that the negative take a stand. Others believe that the negative should just raise objections; this implies no attempt to reach a clash on policy by the negative. Some feel that the negative should hold to straight refutation until forced to a stand and then it should be prepared to take one. Some feel that the clash should come early—others late. These very important decisions are basically strategic. The use of a counterplan is an obvious example of strategy.

4. Placement of arguments—It is necessary for every team to decide which constructive speech should contain certain arguments. In the present college question, should the negative attack the concept of permanent in the first or the second constructive speech? If it is placed in the first speech, the debaters have the advantage of more time to discuss the point. However, this also gives the affirmative an earlier chance to attack it. The question of the placement of an argument depends on the strength, value and importance of that argument to the basic approach selected earlier.

The only criteria of judgment or

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2. Courtney and Capp, Practical Debating, J. B. Lippincott Co., Chicago, 1949, p. vi.
3. George McCoy Musgrave, Competitive Debate, H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1946, p. 80. (The limitations of space do not allow the author to discuss Mr. Musgrave's ideas in detail. However, every debater should read chapter 4 of this book for a basic understanding of debate strategy. Even if he does not intend to use the devices the debater should understand them.)

Delivery in Debate

By E. C. Buehler, University of Kansas

THIS article is devoted to the problem of delivery in contest debating, particularly as observed in tournaments. If the outside world would judge us solely by what is heard in a typical debate tournament, our profession would suffer indeed from disrepute. The quality of speech delivery as manifested in many of our debate tournaments will compare unfavorably with that found in many of our speech classes.

On the whole, we must admit that the debaters' delivery is bad and that debate coaches have failed to do much about it. What then is basically wrong with the manner of speaking of our debaters? What are the more glaring deficiencies and faults of debate delivery?

(1) The speaking manner is stilted and is stamped by a stylized formality. The performance does not sound real. The speaking seems to be something apart from the flesh and blood reality of the moment. This striking manner is particularly evident among our freshmen who have been conditioned to this type of presentation by four years of high school debating.

Delivery in Debate

Here we have shades of the elocutionists. It is often difficult for the student to shake off this formal, stylized delivery. I recall a college senior debater thus afflicted who sought assistance by enrolling in a course of Oral Interpretation. After struggling with the oral rendition of some of the masterpieces of literature for nearly a semester, his sympathetic teacher observed, "John, you are the first student I ever had who debated poetry."

(2) The speaking rate is abnormally rapid. In a frantic effort to cover as much ground as possible, the debater appears to be in a nip and tuck race with the clock. All concepts of rhetorical balance and thought emphasis are lost in a stream of excited vocal utterances which literally spout from the mouth of the speaker. The debater exhibiting such an abnormally rapid speaking pace is not only unable to emphasize his thought properly, he finds it difficult to make himself intelligible to the listener.

(3) The delivery suffers from high tension vocalization. I have judged debates in which the debaters were so worried, tense and edgy that the whole occasion was charged with an atmosphere of an impending calamity. I was uncomfortable and ill at ease. When the final rebuttal speech was over and we were brought back to the startling silence of the room, I would give a sigh of relief and mutter to myself, "Thank goodness, that's over."

This high tension vocalization is characterized by the raised voice and abnormally loud tones. One hour of this sound and fury becomes dreadfully wearisome. It is like tuning the volume of your bedside radio for the neighbors down the street to hear.

(4) The delivery of the contest debater is often marked by an imposing, dogmatic and aggressive manner. This is perhaps the most pronounced of the evils of debate delivery. Out of the debater's desire to be positive and aggressive, we often obtain those by-products of delivery which are most annoying and antagonizing. The virtues of positiveness and aggression, when over-extended, or used to excess, without regard to the good will of the listener, may backfire and destroy the effectiveness of what is being said.

The over-aggressive manner is often governed too much by the debater's ego. When this spirit gets out of bounds, we have sarcasm, belittling of the opponents, insinuations and various forms of personal stings. The moment the debater ceases to be master of his own spirit, he loses his prime weapon of persuasive delivery. When the debater tries to win by imposing himself, rather than his logic and evidence into the fray, he suffers a double loss. He loses the debate which is inconsequential but far more important, he loses the contest with himself. Would that our debaters were guided by the thought that debate is essentially a form of an academic sport, not a device by which college students may find immunity for strutting their mental prowess. Neither is debate an invention by which debaters may lay claim to moral rightness of secular issues.

(5) Debaters generally exhibit a poor or inadequate attitude toward effective oral communication. What communicative spirit a debater may have is often ill used. Some debaters seem to pounce on the poor unsuspecting judge and proceed to concentrate on him with a fierce and sustained vigor. Some debaters turn on their opponents and focus all their remarks upon them as if to convince them as to who is right and who is wrong in this argument. A valid observation has to do with the personal attitude of the debater. Good delivery is predicated upon the speaker's personal desire to be communicative. The debater who is deeply and sincerely concerned about sharing a point of view with the judge is likely to unconsciously control his speaking pace, his pitch, his volume and his personal emotions and thus bring all of his faculties of expression to bear upon his speaking. If this attitude is strong enough, the debater will then communicate, not only his thoughts but elements of his personality as well.

The preceding criticisms do not apply in all instances and while these criticisms may be a little exaggerated, they are most applicable to the tournament decision contest. Here, the faults of delivery are most pronounced. Since we may expect the tournament to be widely used and emphasized, the present practices in debate delivery do present a definite problem. We, who are speech teachers and debate coaches, must take our share of the blame for this problem. The crude fact is that delivery is an indispensable and unexpected factor in debate. Without it, there would be no debate. Yet it is a factor to which we give little or no attention. Out of 25 debate texts examined, only eight have chapters on Delivery. Only about one-half of the judges rating cards which have come to my attention in the last few years include delivery as an element to be considered by the judge.

Perhaps one reason why we neg-

lect delivery in debate lies in the fact that there is no unified concept among debate coaches as to what should be acceptable standards of delivery. We have worked out relatively unified concepts pertaining to effective organization, methods of proof, use of evidence and acceptable rhetorical methods but when it comes to delivery our concepts are greatly diversified. One judge likes the bombastic style of delivery, another abhors it. One likes sarcasm and ridicule, another will not tolerate it.

Probably our concepts of style in the delivery of debate suffer from old ideas which have their origin in the precepts of elocution. Furthermore, our judgment as applied to delivery in a specific tournament debate may suffer from our idea of what we consider to be good delivery for an actual audience situation.

The crux of the difficulty is the fact that inherently the conditions of the decision tournament debate are so limited and inflexible that they do not lend themselves to the kind of training or speaking experience, which we find in the more orthodox speaker-audience relationships. The college debater is often under terrific emotional strain. He is working under pressure and, therefore, finds it difficult to be his better self. He is without an audience. Before him is the judge with the ballot, a timekeeper with a stop watch and opponents whom he wants to lick and, of course, there are the four walls. Moreover, he is using arguments and phrases he has used a dozen times before. Obviously, there is something artificial and unreal about this condition as compared with audience situations in real life.

Some of the larger intangible factors which are often the main source of eloquence in real audience situations do not come into play here. Rush, in his "Philosophy of the Human Voice", attempted to show that speech was a part of nature's orderly design. What chance is there for "nature's orderly design" to manifest itself in this speaking situation? Aristotle believed that speech was a manifestation of the total personality. There are too many factors in a debate tournament which force the personality of the debater out of balance, handicaps it by wear and tear or otherwise forces it to operate under wraps. Professor Jerry Voorhes writing in the Quarterly Journal for December, 1948, points out that the most telling speeches in the United States Congress are no more than five minutes in length and that effect is lost if the speaker appears to be excited or speaks at a rapid rate. Debaters are nearly always excited and speak too rapidly. Professor Voorhes concludes that speakers in congress would be more effective if they would confess a certain weakness or limitation in their own position. It would appear, therefore, that congressmen often lose their effectiveness as speakers when they go all out to line up with a party, faction or a side—admitting nothing. How similar these self-imposed handicaps are to those of the college debater.

This criticism of delivery of our contest debaters, strong though it may be, does not mean tournament debate should be abandoned. The tournament appears to be one of our best devices by which we get the motivation for training and developing those exacting skills of logic and reasoned discourse.

Since the tournament seems destined to remain with us, the debate performance as manifested by delivery certainly should be reappraised and improved.

At the risk of sounding like a trite debate coach, I will venture a few suggestions. However, I beg permission to step out of character and address my remarks directly to the college debater.

Mr. Debater: You must remember at the outset that you seldom win debates by your delivery but you often lose them by this means. Although the judge may not admit it, he will vote against a team as often as he votes for it. Poor delivery is a pushover for a judge who is looking for a reason to vote against you. If you really are serious about improving your delivery, then I suggest you consider first of all four cardinal basic concepts: (1) Get the communicative spirit. You must have a deep and abiding desire to reach the mind and the consciousness of the judge. You can't communicate with your judge by shouting at him or pretending to ram your ideas down his throat. Force feeding simply will not work. (2) Be genuine. Make what you say ring true. By all means, do not pose as a moral crusader who is standing out here valiantly against some poor misguided opponents who are 100% wrong. There is no reason why you should be more righteous or more holy than your opponents. You may be debating the other side of the question within an hour. You can be sincere in believing that your line of argument is altogether logical, sound, relevant and tenable. (3) Speak with lots of enthusiasm. The debate is no place for indifferent, colorless and monotonous speech. Show a lively, alert, animated attitude and speaking manner. Act the part if you must. (4) Be human. Show some warmth and friendliness. A debate is more than a mental boxing match. It is also a match of human personalities. Friendly warmth and courtesy are persuasive forces. Good speaking, wherever you find it, is in essence the total personality in action.

I have mentioned some of the personal, cardinal virtues which play an important role in your delivery. Pay attention to them and the mechanics will largely take care of themselves, but if you insist on doing it the hard way, here are a few suggestions pertaining to the mechanics of your delivery.

Watch your speaking rate, don't race your words and don't raise your voice when you get excited. Have plenty of conversation variety so you will not be tiresome to the judge. Always control your voice and maintain your emotional balance. Above all, make your arguments, your facts, your logic, your authorities run interference for you. Don't push yourself ahead of what you have to say. In other words, don't try to envelop the judge or overpower your opponents with your personality.

Finally, this word to the men and women of my profession. We can help our own cause by creating a climate for better performance in debate delivery. We can do this by giving the debater more live audiences. We train our soldiers with live ammunition. Why not apply the same principle in debate? Let's place delivery along side of argument, analysis, rebuttal and other factors on every score card which the judge uses. If every tournament recognizes delivery as a factor for determining the judge's verdict, our debaters would soon become more

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Decisions and the Critic Judge

Eugene C. Chenoweth
Indiana University

Inasmuch as we have just heard Professor Schug (a previous panel speaker) say that of the individuals who answered his questionnaire only twenty per cent believe that present judging practices are satisfactory, we see that evaluation of forensics performance is still an outstanding problem.

Our first task in discussing this problem is to determine the purpose of decisions in debate and the value of critic evaluations in both debate and discussion. Decisions are used for the purpose of motivating the student to achieve higher levels of proficiency in debate. Decisions should stimulate the student to search for an abundance of evidence, to make a more thorough analysis of the problem, and to prepare his debates more carefully.

Critic evaluations may be employed as teaching techniques in debate and discussion in three ways: First, critic evaluations may aid the student to recognize his needs and abilities in debate and discussion.

Second, critic judging may help keep the aims and objectives of discussion and debate before the students and directors.

Third, these judging devices may motivate the student to reach desired goals in forensic performance.

Although decisions are employed as motivating techniques in debate, these decisions sometimes produce detrimental effects on the debaters. This is especially true when decisions are not based on debating skill, or when there is a low correlation between the number of debates a team wins and its good, excellent, or superior quality ratings received in the tournament. If decisions are to be meaningful and stimulating to debaters, it seems the number of debates a team wins should be in line with the quality of debating performance of the speakers. It appears inconsistent, for example, when a team with a mediocre rating in quality of debating skill wins the largest number of decisions in a tournament, and a team with the highest quality ratings in debating achievement, as evaluated by the same judges, places low in the won-lost column in that same tournament. When the debaters ask for an explanation of this apparent discrepancy, it seems we directors are not always able to account for it.

If decisions and critic evaluations are to serve a useful function in forensic training, the critic judge should be capable of distinguishing different levels of debating skill. This is not always the case, for not infrequently we see teachers, professors, ministers, business men, and even campus visitors, who have little or no training in debate, drafted to act as critic judges in tournaments. Even trained judges sometimes arrive at unsatisfactory decisions.

On one occasion, for example, immediately after the last debate of the final tournament of the year, I overheard a group of debaters say that one judge had preserved his unblemished record of negative decisions throughout the entire season. Hardly believing that any judge could or would achieve such a phenomenal record, I asked this judge about his alleged accomplishment. He said it was true that he had given all negative decisions on this particular debate resolution, because there was absolutely, positively no affirmative side to this proposition. In his estimation, all decisions had to be negative regardless of the superior debating skill that might be displayed by an affirmative team.

(Ed. Note: We recognize here the judge who decides the proposition instead of the debate.)

At another tournament an affirmative team stated the debate proposition and defined the terms. Then it stated another resolution and debated the affirmative of the latter. The team did not return to a consideration of the original proposition until the concluding statement, which is as follows: "Because we have presented a logical case and the negative team has not attacked it, we ask you, honorable judge, to concur with us that the proposition . . . (the original resolution) should be adopted".

The negative teams that met this affirmative case stated that the affirmative team was not debating the proposition and that the negative, therefore, had no case to attack. Then the negative teams set up straw men on the original proposition and destroyed them. That's all they could do. When the results of the tournament were announced, it was discovered that the two teams tied for first place had each lost one debate, judged by the same individual, to the team that presented this unusual case. It was difficult, you may be sure, for these two teams and their coaches to understand the bases for the judge's decisions.

Again, when teams of X school, which have a consistent sixty to seventy per cent winning average over a period of years, never receive favorable decisions from Y school judges, it appears that these judges are influenced by certain prejudices rather than by the debating skill of the speakers from X institution.

These cases are not typical, you may say. Perhaps no, perhaps yes. But if critic decisions are to be helpful techniques in speech education, the judge must make an objective analysis and appraisal of the debate. This evaluation should be based on sound principles found in any standard debate textbook. The judge should arrive at his decision by determining which team displayed the higher over-all average skill in presenting the case, not which team presented the stronger arguments or the better evidence. Debating skill should include a knowledge of the subject, thorough analysis, sound reasoning, clear organization, and able presentation. The merits of the question or the personal bias of the judge toward one side or the other should not influence the judge's decision. His obligation is to determine which team did the better debating.

Some capable judges present their critic decisions as follows: First, they evaluate the debate as a whole, and state what is good and what is weak about the debate.

Second, these critic judges analyze and evaluate each case as a whole, indicating the strong and weak features of each case, and

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*This paper was read at the Convention of the Speech Association of America, Chicago, Illinois, Dec. 29, 1951.

Presenting New Mexico State University

NEW MEXICO is a land of exaggerated contrasts, from its snow-covered Sangre de Christo Range to the warm cotton-growing Mesilla Valley, from the lush Rio Grande gardens to the desert White Sands of Alamogordo, home of the first Atom Bomb test. Culturally and linguistically, the contrasts are equally great. In the north near Santa Fe, oldest state capital in the U. S. A., lies Los Alamos, newest and most modern city in our hemisphere; in the center is Isleta, with its fine old church and with many of its homes pre-dating the landing of the Pilgrims; and to the west is the village of Acoma, which Coronado described in 1540 as "The Sky City" because it is built on 400 foot high defensive bluffs. Such is New Mexico, land of sunshine, siesta, and manana.

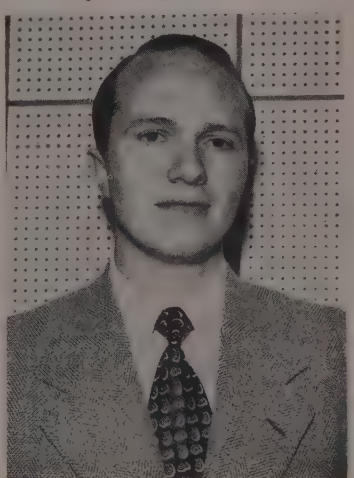
New Mexico's ethnic cultures (and languages) lie comfortably under the sun, three layers deep. Legally the only bi-lingual state in the Union, New Mexico is actually a multi-lingual fusion. All official notices and laws must be published in both English and Spanish, neither of which languages is spoken nor understood by thousands of its Indian population. On the streets of Albuquerque, one hears Spanish and English, Navajo and Isleta, Acoma, and Apache, and dozens more of the Indian languages and dialects. Here is the real challenge for the teacher of speech who wishes to escape the arm chair and the ivy tower.

Like many sister universities, New Mexico did not at once recognize its unique opportunity to pioneer in the field of Speech. In the days immediately following World War I, Dr. George St. Clair, Head of the Department of English, incorporated oral composition and public speaking into the English curriculum. Several courses were offered each semester with apparently satisfying results since the practice was continued for 25 years. Debate and discussion were added, and in general prospered.

When Dr. T. M. Pearce, folklorist, linguist and former debater, succeeded to the headship of the Department of English, more emphasis was given to speech. Assisting and encouraging Dr. Pearce in this expansion program were such distinguished scholars as Dr. C. V. Wicker, Professor Julia Keleher, Dr. Willis Jacobs, and others. Each coached debate, led discussions, taught speech classes, and in general contributed to the dignity of the spoken word on the campus at New Mexico. In 1938 Tau Kappa Alpha recognized the quality of this work by placing a chapter on the campus.

It was not until the end of World War II, however, that the University, along with many other institutions of higher learning, accepted the obligation of a major speech program. At the end of the war, Dr. Robert E. Barton Allen, former professor of Speech and Director of Radio Programs at Indiana University and also formerly Head of the Department of Speech and Dramatic Arts at Carleton College, was persuaded by Dr. Pearce (and a bad case of asthma), to join the staff of the Department of English at New Mexico. Dr. Allen's acceptance was predicated on the understanding that a Division of Speech was to be established within the Department. This was done in 1946 upon Dr. Allen's arrival.

A minimum curriculum was established and a staff of four was provided. Professor Fred M. Chreist was brought from Northwestern University to organize the work in



DR. JAMES H. McBATH
Director of Forensics

DR. WAYNE C. EUBANKS
Chairman Speech Department

speech and hearing therapy; Dr. Allen established and supervised suitable radio studios with accompanying courses. The following year, Dr. Harold O. Reid, veteran debate coach, came to the campus as Assistant Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences and Professor of Speech in charge of Forensics. Within three years time the student-semester enrollment in Speech had increased to more than 600 per year. Speakers' Club, under the supervision of the Division, boasted 200 members.

By 1947 the Division of Speech had become such a lusty baby that Dr. Pearce and Dean Thomas C. Donnelly felt it should be weaned and put on its own feet. Relationships with all areas of the Department of English and with the Department of Drama, established in 1937 in the College of Fine Arts, had been so close and so pleasant that this decision was reached with reluctance.

1949 saw the Division of Speech changed to the Department of Speech, and Dr. Wayne C. Eubank brought from the University of Florida to head the new Department. In 1950 Dr. James H. McBath came from Northwestern University, as Director of Forensics. The curriculum was revised, broadened and strengthened by new courses and new staff members. 1950 also saw

Mesa Vista Men's Dormitory — Largest building in New Mexico.

the advent of the Graduate Program, with the M. A. degree being offered in the areas of public address, speech correction, and radio.

The Speech Clinic offering speech therapy to the University students has already established an enviable reputation throughout the Southwest. During the fall of 1950, an Out-Patient Clinic was established to be used as an educational activity of the University and to serve the needs of children and adults throughout the state. Here the Indian child, Spanish speaking child, and English speaking child (and adult) meet on common ground to learn a common mother language.

Forensic Activities

Before the Territory of New Mexico was granted statehood, the University had its beginning on a one-building campus on the barren mesa overlooking Albuquerque. This was in 1889. Before long, speech activities were enjoyed by several in the small student body through participation in annual contests. The dearth of intercollegiate competition was regretted by many, including the editor of the 1906 yearbook, who wrote, "The University of New Mexico has not been behind other schools in her interest and attainments in this work . . . . There have been no interschool contests, only because of the lack of schools in the Territory of sufficient standing to compete with the University."

Although the problem of distance from other schools with forensic interests long proved an obstacle, it did not prevent a host of enthusiastic teachers and students from traveling long distances to speaking contests. In 1916, the University debate team was traveling as far as California, to compete with such schools as the University of Redlands and the University of Southern California. By 1934, the debaters were appearing in approximately 15 intercollegiate contests each year in several of the western states.

The questions discussed in those early years were drawn largely from contemporary state and western problems. For example, the year before New Mexico became a state in the Union, students were discussing and debating the question. "Resolved, that the Oregon form of Initiative and Referendum should be adopted by New Mexico."

Under the leadership of men such as Dr. C. V. Wicker, Dr. T. M. Pearce, and Willis D. Jacobs, several student organizations contributed heavily to New Mexico forensic progress. The Forum was one of the earliest of these, composed of all students active in forensic activities. Its successor was the Debate Council, organized in 1934 to strengthen and unify the available talent for debating. Another group organization which contributed much to the speech program was formed at the close of World War II, called the Student-Faculty Forum, led by Dr. Wicker. The group met weekly during several of the following semesters to discuss vital questions in world affairs, and important campus problems. After 1946 New Mexico forensics advanced under the consecutive direction of Professors Allen, Reid, and Eubank. The present day University forensic program is directed by Dr. James H. McBath, assisted by Elbert G. Barnhart.

The excellence of the forensic program through the years in making a practical contribution to the state and community, can be seen in the success of many former debaters. Among those are President Tom L. Popejoy of the University, Lt. Gov. Tibo Chavez of New Mexico, Calvin Horn, speaker of the state House of Representatives at Santa Fe, and former speaker of the House, John F. Simms.

The philosophy that underlies the University of New Mexico debate program might be summarized as follows: We regard debate as a most worthwhile educational enterprise since sound argumentative ability comprises an essential social skill in our democratic society. To attain maximum individual proficiency, we believe that our debaters should receive training in the techniques of research and analysis, should understand the principles of logical organization, should equip themselves for effective communication of their ideas, and should appreciate the importance of sportsmanship and respect toward the views of others. Furthermore, they should have ample opportunity to test their cases, buttressed by the best available evidence, in frequent forensic clash before their colleague and faculty members. A carefully planned schedule of trips affords additional opportunity for university debaters to present their ideas before interested audiences and in competition with representatives from other universities.

During the forensic season of 1950-51, New Mexico speakers traveled approximately twenty thousand miles participating in hundreds of rounds of debate, oratory, extemporaneous speaking, discussion, radio, and interpretation. This extensive traveling program included the major tournaments at Colorado University, East Central State College of Oklahoma, Abilene Christian College, Denver University, University of Nebraska, Northwest State College in Louisiana, and Oklahoma's Southeastern State College. The season was climaxed with

1—Members of Debate Squad. 2—Speech Faculty and Staff. 3—Speech Day Awards and Winners. 4—Harold Brock and Glen Houston (TKA and West Point Representatives). 5—Speech Clinic. 6—Discussion Group. 7—Campus Scene.

top debate single team honors at the Tau Kappa Alpha National Tournament in Harrogate, Tennessee, and an invitation to attend the West Point National Debate Tournament as one of the Southwest's four representatives.

Campus forensic activities, too, occupy an important position in the University's speech program. An annual Speech Day is sponsored by the Department to stimulate campus interest in the areas of oratory, extempore speech, radio, and interpretation. Contests, open to all, are held in these events. 1952 witnesses the inauguration of another campus-wide tournament in the above events open only to the freshmen. In April, the Department of Speech entertains the State High School Speech Festival. This annual meet, embracing most of the fields of competitive speech, attracts an ever-increasing number of New Mexico high school speakers to the University campus.

The forensic program at the University of New Mexico, then, encompasses a wide range of campus and off-campus speech activities. There are no try-outs for the University program; it is available to every undergraduate. Financed by an assessment of the entire student body and encouraged by the faculty and administration, forensics at New Mexico offers superior intramural and intercollegiate speech opportunities to all interested undergraduate students.

New Mexico Backgrounds

No University in the Rocky Mountain area better typifies the spirit of the Southwest than the University of New Mexico. Founded in 1889 by act of the Territorial Legislature, the state's largest institution of higher learning stands as a memorial to harmonious blending of the three ethnic cultures—the Indian, Spanish, and Anglo.

The post-war influx of foreign students has only centered attention on the University of New Mexico as a model for the fusion of races into a composite whole. A recent article by Dr. A. L. Campa, University of Denver, stated that the University of New Mexico was the only one of the Rocky Mountain schools which asked no discriminatory questions on its application for admittance. Last year UNM registered 28 brilliant Okinawan freshmen out of 552 sent to the United States by the Institute of International Education and the U. S. State Department. When asked why so many of the Okinawan students were sent to the University of New Mexico, the U. S. officials stated that they considered it to be the most democratic institution in America.

In addition to representatives of every state in the Union and all U.S. territories, students annually come from some 40 foreign nations for specialized study. From 108 regularly enrolled students in 1892, the number grew to a peak registration of almost 5,000 in the fall of 1948. They come seeking knowledge offered in courses in all nine of the fully accredited colleges on the UNM campus. These are Arts and Sciences, Education, Business Administration, Law, Pharmacy, Engineering, Fine Arts, Graduate School, and the General College.

The surrounding desert, mountain scenery, brilliant sunsets, and colorful dress of the inhabitants have combined to make the region a paradise for artists. Fully a half dozen internationally-known artist-professors on the University campus are listed in everybody's Who's Who for their exhibitions which have been shown in art centers over the world.

Historians are digging daily into wealth of virgin material filed in the archives, letters and diaries relating to events in the history of the old Southwest—all safely stored in the UNM library.

Close by Sandia Base and Los Alamos, the UNM scientists are at present engaged on various research projects related to the present atomic-age. International recognition has come to the University through the Institute of Meteoritics for research done on the common everyday meteorite and its close neighbor, the "fireball."

Publications at the University have done much to scatter the fame of the institution well beyond the state boundaries. Under the direction of E. B. Mann, the UNM Press has been classed by critics as one of the outstanding publishing houses west of the Mississippi. The material for its books runs all the way from purely regional to national in scope. In the way of journals, the New Mexico Quarterly and the New Mexico Historical Review rank well with similar publications of the nation's leading universities. The book review section of the New York Times has repeatedly referred to the Quarterly as one of the best of its type in the United States.

Over and above a sound instructional program, the University is blessed with a unique style of architecture. Tourists and visitors to the campus invariably bring their cameras to carry back pictures of

New 40 Room Class Building.

At top the University of New Mexico Administration Building showing the typical modified Pueblo architecture into which all 48 campus structures fit. Lower left the Journalism building which is the home of student publications, alumni office, printing plant, journalism department and the University Department of Information. Lower right the UNM library which houses over 200,000 catalogued volumes.

the 48 permanent buildings which feature the modified Pueblo style of architecture. Instead of being cramped for space, as is the case with so many universities in metropolitan areas, the spacious campus has room to spare for expansion, and breathes of the wide-open ranges of the great Southwest. The 20 acres allotted to the University in 1889 have grown to over 400 acres in the heart of Albuquerque.

The present faculty, which has grown from seven the first full year of operation to 250 teachers for the 1951-52 session, brings a wide range of culture for Albuquerque's cosmopolitan population.

Ideally located and blessed with a climate that is a paradise from a health point of view, the campus provides facilities for all sorts of recreation. Some students play tennis on the UNM courts, while others ski on the east side of the Sandias only 20 miles away. Besides the regular line of university sports, including football, baseball, basketball, golf, swimming, and track, the University has provided opportunities for horseback riding, archery, hockey, badminton, square dancing, and participation in western rodeos. There is a 27-hole University-owned golf course on the campus.

The end of expansion for an ever-growing institution is not yet in sight. With over $3,000,000 put into new buildings since the end of World War II, the UNM Regents authorized five new constructions at their July, 1951, meeting. These will include structures to house chemistry, biology, geology, physics-meteoritics, and the College of Law. Their approximate cost will run over $2,400,000.

The ninth president, Tom L. Popejoy, anticipates an enrollment that will level off at about 6,000 students in the late 1950's or early 1960's.

DECISIONS AND THE CRITIC JUDGE

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stating what each did or did not do in terms of the opposing case. They remember that a case thirty minutes in length is supposed to contain neither all the arguments and evidence that could be offered on one side, nor the refutation of all the arguments that could be offered on the other side. The members of a team have fulfilled their obligations when they have presented two or three major arguments supported by an abundance of valuable evidence, and have refuted the arguments offered by the opposing debaters.

Third, these able critics appraise the performance of each speaker, stating specifically wherein he fulfilled or failed to fulfill his obligations. Although these judges are considerate in their remarks about individual debaters, especially the losers, they do not offer sympathy. The debaters need instruction and stimulation, not sympathy. These judges mention also the commendable achievements of the speakers. It is as essential to speak of the desirable traits of the debaters as it is to criticize their inadequacies. It appears that some judges often spend too much time criticizing the weaknesses of the speakers but not enough time recounting their desirable qualities.

Finally, skillful critic judges give their decisions and state their reasons for them. These reasons, of course, should comply with solid principles of debate.

I believe we know enough about appraising debate performance to be able to help students to improve their debating skill, but I'm not so sure that we are equally prepared to evaluate discussion participation. I believe we can appraise a total discussion process rather adequately, but I'm not convinced that we can effectively evaluate the performance and the contributions of each individual. Perhaps, this apparent paradox exists because a discussion as a whole is more than the sum of the contributions and behavior of the individual discussers. I believe, for example, that a group of discussors, each of whom is rated mediocre on a discussion rating ballot, could produce an excellent discussion. One or two discussers might be rated above average on evidence only, others might be appraised above mediocre on only their ability to analyze the problem and see logical relationships, and still others, though not able to make the original analyses, could see them after they were made and could harmonize and synthesize the contributions of the various group members into a productive discussion. A more thorough study of the relative value of the various factors involved in efficient individual participation probably will give us a deeper insight into the problem of evaluating discussion performance to assist discussers in their efforts to achieve greater proficiency in this area of reflective thinking.

We may be satisfied with our present methods of making decisions and giving critic evaluations in debate and discussion, but unless these decisions and evaluations help the students to improve their performance, we are wasting our time on these techniques.

DELIVERY IN DEBATE

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conscious of its value. Finally, I propose we make a greater effort to provide more opportunities for the debater to participate in other less formal forensic ventures. Why not supplement our tournaments with other speaking events such as extemporaneous speaking, newscasting, informative speaking, the Oxford style of debate and legislative assemblies. Let's supplement the meat course which is the tournament with a more balanced diet.

NEWS NOTES AND PERSONALS

The Iowa Forensic Association tournament will be held at Grinnell College March 7-8, 1952.

A district tournament for the states of Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado and the others associated with them in the central area is under consideration.

The Rocky Mountain Speech Conference was held Feb. 14-16 at the University of Denver. Prof. E. E. Bradley was the director. The regular college question was used in debate. There were high school and college tournaments in addition to a Conference Program.

More than 1,200 students and teachers, representing 114 Indiana high schools, participated in the 19th annual Debaters' Conference and Legislative Assembly. This conference, held on the Purdue campus on Nov. 30 and Dec. 1, was one of the largest in its 19-year history.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

CONVENTIONS

I just love conventions! One anticipates them, looks forward to them, saves up for them for weeks and months, and then lo and behold you take a train ride which is over all too soon! You land in a big hotel with a lot of strange persons and a few friends and acquaintances and attend sessions! Or maybe you don't attend sessions because you know the real convention is out in the halls and corridors! You wait with a mob for the elevator to take you up to your room, down to the convention assembly, or up to the session in the tower. You scurry through a program, well marked up so you can find things, so well marked up that you get lost in finding things, and miss the elevator. You walk around the hall and the lobby looking for someone you know to talk to or lunch with. You suddenly wake up on the train home, the convention is over, and you are in a state of let down and relaxation. You ask the brakeman what the town is as the train saunters to a stop. He says "Kansas City, suh!" and you roll over and go back to sleep!

DEMOCRACY

What is democracy, anyway? We often hear people say it is the American way. And we recognize a certain amount of truth in this remark and pass it by without questioning too closely. Democracy is indulging in what you please as long as it doesn't make the other fellow yell too much. Awkward and ungainly way of saying it, but perhaps there is also a lot of truth in this slatternly remark.

Democracy is jolly well doing as you please, for democracy is individual privilege, individual advantage, individual right according to the average American belief. Democracy is that blessed position of being exempt from other people's complaints, objections, and orders. It is being so strategically placed that no one can cut the grounds from under you—no one can disturb your self-satisfaction. Yes, democracy is a great thing; it is just absolute security from worldly annoyances such as disagreeable persons are constantly thinking up; it is that sense of knowing you don't have to pay any attention to them, that you can do as you please and let the world go by. No, we aren't really joking! We maintain that the above is the average American's concept of democracy. It is enjoying a sense of immunity from other people's grumbling criticism and outspoken dissatisfactions.

Of course none of these definitions are proper or scientific definitions. They are not intended to be. They are just expressions of the way the average person feels about his own American rights and privileges, until such time as some one really steps on his sensibilities and awakes him with a growl.

Democracy is a state of being in which every individual has equal rights. Oh, is that so! Maybe you will tell me what "equal" is. It's such a favorite word. We all love to use it and to assert it when it applies to us in reference to others. It is such a comfortable word and such an easy state—knowing you are equal. No one has any rights above or before you. No one knows anything you don't. No one can tell you what to do. It is such a satisfying state of existence.

Democracy is the state of being independent, of being self-sufficient, of being right all the time. Democracy lives next door to arrogance, pride, and self-indulgence! It is like being the candy when other people's gum is worn out; it's the one chocolate milkshake in a row of unsweetened lemonades. It's the driver's seat in a swanky automobile. It's the right of way on all restraints that make life annoying! But why go on like this. It is time to say something sensible.

Democracy has always meant to me equilibrium in a disturbed and unsettled world. It is the receipt in the pocket for the full value of an expensive purchase. It's knowing you can't be halted point blank—you belong and you can walk through the gate with your chin up and your nose in the air. Democracy is such a safe and complacent feeling. It gives you hours of pleasure and comfort before others can catch up or interrupt your composure. Democracy is the balm of life until others begin to assert their equal rights to it—then all complacency vanishes, and democracy becomes the prosaic sharing of all your blessings, rights, comforts, privileges, and special advantages with the common throng. Then you awake and realize that after all democracy is just the state of being like everybody else, one of a group, one of a crowd, a humble little ego in a very commonplace sphere! What a let down! If you are wise—it means if you have a nickel and the other fellow has a penny—don't match pennies with him. Wake up and be normal! Or the other fellow's total will be six cents, and your state of democracy will turn into self-reproach! This isn't much of an editorial, but what can you expect of a smashed gum-drop?

STRATEGY IN DEBATING

There are persons in the debate world who cry out against strategic debating yet their teams use strategy in the sense that we understand strategy—planned debating. If strategy means trickery, as they seem to think it does, then we, too, think it is open to condemnation. But strategy and trickery are not synonymous—at least Noah Webster's big book nor any other dictionary we know of—justifies any such assumption. As we understand strategy in debate it is skillful planning to make the most of the possibilities on the side you are debating. A general who took his armies into battle without planning, without strategy for the fight, would be practically criminally incompetent and ineffective. He would deserve a court martial. A debater who does not plan and arrange his argument to make the most of it—to make it appear effective and convincing—is a slip-shod debater who hasn't learned what debate really is. His opponents soon find out that he is an easy mark, and dig pits for him to fall into. In other words they take advantage of his obvious weakness to discomfit him at every turn. A debater dares not lack foresight! If he states arguments rashly without knowing or seeing where they are going to lead logically and inevitably, he had better stay off the platform, where shrewd and strategic debaters appear.

Analysis in Debate

In this issue we print an article by Joseph Schwartz of Marquette University setting forth a severe criticism of the Need-Plan type of debating. We, editorially speaking, think he is right. In the early days of intercollegiate debating, we did not have things down to such a simple stereotyped scheme of debating. We did what he suggests—sought the basic principles behind the action, and then examined them in the light of what was just and honest, wise and expedient, useful and practicable. We didn't consider whether the action was needed; we considered whether it had benefits or improvements that would make it desirable. We considered whether it was superior to any other action that might be applied or adopted. Need-plan debating has, frankly, many of the weaknesses, faults, and fallacies that Professor Schwartz accuses it of having. We have become so smug and self-satisfied in the United States with our Need-Plan debating, that we interpret all benefits and improvements involved in an action as proving "need". We personally think "desirable" is the more honest word to use. Possibly we are growing too censorious in our old age, but we prefer words to have honest meanings rather than dishonest and cover up meanings. We have always been advocates of calling a spade a spade, except when it is trumps. What we mean is that "need" isn't always trumps. We like our deck to have at least four suits. Before we turn to something else, may we extend our thanks to Professor Schwartz for his interesting and timely article.

Colleges and universities, institutions for educational purposes, do not have personalities, perhaps, as individuals do, but they do have character, they do stand for basic principles. One of the ways in which this is most manifest is the stamp or imprint they place definitely upon their graduates. Another way in which they manifest character decidedly is in the particular trait or thing they are best known for. Some colleges are distinctly athletic colleges and are best known for that particular interest. Other colleges are best known for their debating and Speech contest standing. Others are known for their high scholarship and thoroughness in educational curriculum. Others are known for their antagonism and neglect of intercollegiate competition of any kind. It is certainly better, in our judgment, to be known for excellence in all activities and in scholarship. The all-around college is the superior college, and in this class we would include the college with a religious interest also.

In choosing a college, one has to consider endowment and NCA ratings, etc. Endowment is potent because it makes possible the salaries needed to secure the able and more inspiring teachers. On the whole, however, the alumni of an educational institution are its most potent feature.

TOURNAMENTS

Debate Tournaments are no longer condemned and spoken against. Their value is recognized and accepted. What is now needed is a proper evaluation of tournaments on a basis of what they accomplish in relation to one another. Some tournaments are manifestly disappointing and inferior to others. In each section of the country, the average director of debate has arrived at the stage where he is evaluating tournaments and their claims. He takes his teams to the tournaments that he respects because he has learned from experience that they really "deliver the goods" as the saying goes. Outside his own district, however, he would appreciate a standard rating of tournaments, especially if he plans to take his team on a trip of some distance. For instance a director of debate in the Middle West would like to know more about a tournament on either coast than he will get out of the tournament prospectus. Rating tournaments might ultimately come from the American Forensic Association, which is an organization composed of Directors of Debate and Speech Activities in American colleges. We know of no organization which could establish and maintain better standards, or which would be more likely to preserve democratic initiative and ultimately squelch flagrant anarchy in the initiation and sponsorship of inferior tournaments.

What features make tournaments inferior? We would offer the following: 1. Laxity and bad management. 2. Incompetent judging. 3. Attempting too much in a limited time. 4. Character and competence of the supporting teams in attendance. 5. Ethical standards. 6. Lack of Educational Concern.

AMERICAN FORENSIC ASSOCIATION NOTES

At the business meetings held at Chicago during the SAA convention new National officers were nominated and elected. They are:

President, Austin J. Freeley, Boston University.

Vice-President, Paul Carmack, Ohio State University.

Sec.-Treasurer, Prof. Annabel D. Hagood, University of Alabama.

The new officers are already on the job and plan to begin a new membership campaign, which is chiefly, of course, a request for dues to be paid, as most of our members have not paid up for 1952.

Plans will be undertaken to duplicate the four debate and forensic sessions the AFA had on the Chicago Convention program at the Cincinnati Convention next December.

Retiring Secretary, Egbert Ray Nichols, of Redlands reaches retirement age and retires from active duty at Redlands at the end of this college year.

TESTIMONY CORNER

I regard debate as one of the best courses I had while a student in Ottawa University 1908-12—and it was a course for which scholastic credit was not given. Debate was a thrilling experience, and it taught me to think on my feet. The information gained in preparing has been a valuable background for newspaper work. In the lower grades of the public school I shunned public speaking. In high school I regretted this and in my senior year took a very awkward part in one debate. When I entered Ottawa U. I determined to go in for debate. During my four years I was fortunate to be chosen for a member of teams in several intercollegiate debates. Fortunate is the person who has had debate experience. In this day, one is called on often to speak in group assemblages. If he has been a debater he does not dread making a speech.—Wayne E. Gilliland, Ottawa, Kansas.

College Debate Handbook

E. R. Nichols, Editor

The College Debate Subject raises Delicate Questions of Freedom and the American Way.

Dear Forrest:

I've thought a good deal about your debate topic this year and have scurried about looking for material for you, but have come up with empty hands. No one in this agency would even dare admit to himself that he thought of the possibility of permanent controls and certainly would never advocate them. Thus all of our literature is pitched in terms of a program strictly limited in time.

I should like to hear some of the colleges debate on the subject. It would seem to me that the negative would have a terrific advantage. I can think of a hundred arguments to advance on their side. First: Moral implications. Any program like price control must have a moral or ethical justification. With us, that basis lies in the touchstone of a normal "free" competitive situation, Pre-Korea. Inevitably, a price-wage control program means that governmental decree slices up the national income pie among businessmen, capitalists, labor, farmers, etc. This division involves value judgments. However, the farther you go away from a base period, the less relevant that base period becomes, until ultimately the division of the spoils becomes purely a calculus of political power — and your society may disintegrate in the ensuing strife. Second: Political considerations. Government in free society depends upon consent. Without consent and general approval you have prohibition all over again. There is a very large block in open revolt. Our intellectual and cultural heritage finds price control anathema. In our interdependent society, there are large groups which can "break" any control program by withholding their services. When a well organized group of producers of an essential commodity "strikes", and they win. And price control breaks down because of the loss of public confidence and the resentment of favoritism. Finally, Administration. This job is enormously complex and difficult. Always unexpected consequences flow from even the most thoroughly considered action. A simple mistake may throw thousands out of work. It might bankrupt businesses; it might cause a diversion of production away from essentials to non-essentials. In pure economic terms, a tremendous waste goes into evasive practices.

If you have any specific questions, I'll try to answer them—maybe with quotable points. (Or don't you use quotes from "Authorities" any more?). Some good examples of the complex problems involved may be gleaned from OPA pricing history series, especially the volumes on Standards, Techniques, and Apparel.

The affirmative, I think, has a tenable case only if it talks of a permanent program as being "in reserve" rather than in effect. The tack I would pursue would be to suggest that our economy is now subject to violent shifts in demand as a result of governmental needs. Now it is war materials, another time it might be food or coal for export, again it might be building materials, etc. It takes some time for the economy to readjust to these demands shifts. In the meantime a favored few reap the reward of "socially created values." Thus one could, I think, defend a permanent system of price and wage controls to be applied from time to time where a particular segment of the economy got sharply, suddenly, and unjustifiably out of line. These controls could gradually be lifted as the economy came to a new equilibrium.

My apologies for my delay. Please call on me again. With a specific problem perhaps I can be of greater assistance.

The above letter was submitted by Prof. Forrest Seal of De Pauw University because of its pertinent interest to college debaters on this season's subject, as it reflects the view of one in government service with a definite view as to the government's proper use of authority.

Most of us are agreed that in war time the government may have to set some prices and make some wages stand still, but, ordinarily the entire philosophy of controls is somewhat contrary to the views of "free" America that most of us have been brought up on.

War certainly can get us into situations where prices of certain things can have extremely disagreeable effects on our economy if there is no control. In such situations we eventually arrive at controls. "If the people have no bread, let them eat cake!" has never fitted into the American concept of freedom and liberty and opportunity.

Many of us remember the sugar shortage in World War I. We didn't have enough sugar for our Allies in Europe, ourselves, and the production of ammunition. The price of sugar jumped from four cents a pound or less (statistics of the time are better than my memory) to eleven cents. The government then froze sugar, and restricted the sale to two pounds at a time at 22 cents, with special arrangements for canners of food and those manufacturing food. As I remember this action, it was very well received and obeyed by the American public. It stopped grabbing and hoarding, and forced a common economy in the use of a scarce product. When the second world war arrived there was not a great disposition to hoard. There was plenty of sugar and the public soon found out there would be plenty for all so hoarding became ridiculous and was not greatly indulged in as far as sugar was concerned. Perhaps the government treatment of the sugar situation when there was a real need for action, is one of the best examples of salutary government controls.

I think the author of the quote at the head of this article is right in his attitude toward "controls in reserve" ready to be applied when necessary at any place in the economy. This possibility of the application of regulatory power in both price and in quantity at critical places in our economy whether the occasion is a war or other emergency makes a reasonable case for government controls. We all know enough about human nature to realize that we cannot trust it blindly and implicitly at all times, and that there is a time for government restraint if we would protect the welfare of all.

(Turn to Page 28)

The High School Debate Handbook

NEW PLAN FOR DEBATE QUESTION ADOPTED

At its annual meeting in Chicago on Dec. 28 the Executive Committee of the N.U.E.A. (National University Extension Association Committee on Debate Materials and Interstate Cooperation) voted unanimously to change the procedure for selecting the question for high school debates. The plan will operate as follows:

(1) At the December meeting the N.U.E.A. Conference on debate will propose three subjects for debate, but state them simply as problem areas. One of these will be selected by vote of the co-operating leagues during February.

(2) A wording committee will phrase two or three discussion questions arising from the problem selected for study and several debate propositions within that problem area.

(3) Debate handbooks will be prepared much as usual, containing background information as well as articles for and against proposed solutions of the problem.

(4) At the close of the regular debate season and early in the fall schools will be encouraged to explore the new subject by holding group discussions employing the discussion questions listed in the handbook.

(5) Schools holding practice tournaments in the fall or states beginning their official debates early will simply designate which of the several wordings of the question published in the handbook will be used in their debates.

(6) At the December meeting the N.U.E.A. Committee will select one of the several phrasings as the official debate question for the year. In doing so it will be guided by the reports of these tentative phrasings in actual tournament use.

Numerous advantages were set forth for the proposal in December, 1950, and considered by the N.U.E.A. Conference a year ago in New York. The plan has been under close scrutiny ever since. The New York Conference approved the plan unanimously but deferred action until the 1951 meeting so that all states might be heard on the proposal. A special committee of which Dr. Bower Aly was chairman surveyed the debate practices of the various debating leagues and their tentative stand on the change being considered.

A special conference to which each participating league was asked to send one official delegate met for three hours in Chicago to consider every aspect or implication of the change as it might affect debating in the various states. Twenty-two delegates were present. On final motion to recommend adoption of the proposal there was only one dissenting vote. The Executive Committee of the N.U.E.A. then made the action official by unanimous vote.

Later the Conference selected three problems for selective vote of the state leagues as follows:

Moral Conduct in Government.
Federal Taxation.
World Organization.

Debate and Discussion Subjects for 1953

Operating under the new plan adopted by the N.U.E.A. Conference at its annual meeting in Chicago, the Wording Committee has formulated the following questions and propositions on the three problem areas selected by the Conference. The state debating leagues will now vote to determine which of the three problems shall be selected for use next season. Handbooks will be prepared on that subject.

1. What Should Be Our Federal Tax Policy?

DEBATE PROPOSITIONS

Resolved: That the power of the federal government to levy income taxes should be restricted to 25% of the taxpayer's annual income.

Resolved: That the federal government should levy a retail sales tax.

Resolved: That the right to levy an income tax should be reserved to the federal government.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

What should be done about the federal debt?

What tax sources should remain exclusively in the province of the federal government?

How can the tax burden in the United States be equitably distributed?

2. How Can We as a Nation Improve the Ethical and Moral Standard of Our Government?

DEBATE PROPOSITIONS

Resolved: That the Civil Service should be extended.

Resolved: That provision for religious instruction should be made by the public schools.

Resolved: That a code of professional ethics should be established for government employes.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

What are the causes of the deterioration of ethical and moral standards in government?

How can our youth be taught ethical and moral standards?

What code of professional ethics should be established for government employes?

3. What Form of International Organization Should the United States Support?

DEBATE PROPOSITIONS

Resolved: That the Atlantic Pact nations should form a federal union.

Resolved: That the United States should take the initiative in forming a federal union of all nations.

Resolved: That the United States should withdraw from the United Nations.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

What have been the weaknesses of past plans for world organization?

What functions should an effective organization of nations assume?

What forms of international organization appear practical at this time?

Pace College has both day and evening classes. It has a school of liberal arts, a school of business, and a school of Accountancy. It was founded in 1906 by Homer St. Clair Pace and Charles Ashford Pace. It has been a downtown college all of its existence.

Western Speech lists thirty-three Western Teachers of Speech in attendance at the Speech Convention held during the Christmas holidays at Chicago, Illinois at the Conrad Hilton Hotel (its new name).

Remarks for the Good of the Order

RATINGS, RANKINGS, OR BOTH?*

Emil R. Pfister,
Central Michigan College of Education

How should we evaluate intercollegiate speech performance in oration, extemporaneous speaking, discussion, and debate? Should we rate participants, giving each a classification such as "good", "excellent", or "superior"; rank them "first", "second", "third", and so forth; or should a combination of both systems be used?

In order to get a sampling of how directors of these activities felt regarding this problem, a questionnaire was sent in August to the 134 chapter sponsors listed in the January, 1951 issue of The Forensic. Despite colleges being closed for the summer, sponsors being away on other duties or vacationing, and faculty changes, 81 replies were received. Of these 81, five were not subject to tabulation because of misunderstanding, qualified answers, or errors, thus leaving 76 replies with which to compute results.

Comparison of Preferences

Activity	Rating	Ranking	Rating & Ranking
Extemporaneous Speaking	34	18	24
Oration	34	18	24
Debate	40	10	26
Discussion	53	6	17

The vote on how to evaluate oration contests showed that thirty-four sponsors favored rating, eighteen favored ranking, and twenty-four favored the use of both ranking and rating.

The ballot tabulation on extemporaneous speaking ended up with exactly the same totals as those in orations which is 45% favoring rating, 23% favoring ranking, and 32% believing in the use of both.

In debate, forty directors (55%) favored rating, ten (13%) favored ranking, and twenty-six (34%) favored the use of both.

The survey further indicated that regarding discussion the chapter sponsors favored rating over ranking fifty-three to six with seventeen preferring the use of both.

Thus rating is favored over ranking two to one in oration and extemporaneous speaking; four to one in debate, and nine to one in discussion. The use of both ranking and rating together is preferred over the use of ranking alone but is not preferred over rating alone.

Nineteen of the ballots returned favored rating to ranking in all four events. Some of the reasons are:

"Rating is sufficient and rather largely avoids the more intricate conflict of opinions of judges" says James C. Brown, sponsor of Eta Chapter, Upper Iowa University, Fayette, Iowa.

Paul C. Crawford, sponsor of Kappa Delta Pi Chapter, Northern Illinois State Teachers College, DeKalb, Illinois, points out that rating is (1) "educationally sounder" and (2) "fairer if several superior speakers are in the same group."

Ranking is criticized by J. T. von Trebra, sponsor of Epsilon Chapter at Whitewater State College, Whitewater, Wisconsin, who says: "Ranking has led to excessive tenseness on the part of participants and questionable practices on the part of judges."

There were but four ballots indicating preference for ranking participants in all four events (oration, extemporaneous speaking, discussion, and debate) but no reasons were stated.

Fifteen ballots indicated that all four activities should be both rated and ranked. E. R. Nichols, a founder of Pi Kappa Delta and its first president, now at Redlands, California, marked his ballot that way and stated:

> I prefer the rating (superior, excellent, good) but I like to have the ranking inside of each of these indicated so that we may know how the contestants actually stood in 1, 2, 3 order.

Mrs. Olive M. Johnson, sponsor of Eta Chapter at North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Texas, writes:

> Neither ranking nor rating alone seems to be an adequate method, but together they could be used to great advantage. For example, in a debate all four contestants and both teams may do work of excellent quality. Yet if the judge must rank the contestants and teams, someone does not receive just recognition for his work. Also, under the same circumstances, all the participants may have done work of excellent quality, but some may be slightly better than others. If they are rated, then, again someone does not receive his just rank. Therefore, if both systems were used, the contestants could be ranked and rated and thus receive the proper reward for their performance.

The balance of the replies (38) were irregular in that they believed some of the activities should be rated and others ranked. Glenn R. Capp, sponsor of Iota Chapter at Baylor University, Waco, Texas, writes:

> We should put our various contests into as realistic a life situation as possible. For example, in debate the life process is competition, pure and simple. The lawyer before the jury; the legislator before the legislature; the politician before the voting public are all speaking for a decision. For that reason I strongly favor having a win or loss decision for debate. To a lesser extent, extemporaneous speaking and oratory involve the persuasive element in speaking. While I think the rating in these contests is excellent, I also think they should be judged by a ranking of first, second, etc.
>
> Discussion is the opposite; you do not discuss matters in actual life in order to win a decision. Therefore, I do not like a decision for this activity. I see no serious objection to rating the student so that they may compare their effectiveness in participating in discussion, but I do not think it should be put in the form of a contest.

This survey is not intended to point out the "right" way to evaluate intercollegiate speech activities but it does indicate the opinion of sponsors and some of the reasons for these opinions.

The next Western Speech Association Convention will be held at Denver, Colorado, November 27-29, 1952. William McCoard will plan the program. This will be the second Western Convention to be held in Denver.

*From the Oct. 1951 issue of the Forensic of Pi Kappa Delta, P.9.

Place of Interpretation in High School

INTERPRETATION IN HIGH SCHOOL*

Rollo A. Tallcott,
Dean of Ithaca College, New York

There are three reasons, I believe, why Interpretation should be taught at the high school level. First, the teaching of reading in the grades cannot reach the reasoning phase that true interpretation requires because of the immaturity of the child's mind at that level. Further, such teaching as is being done in the grades is still far from being adequate to give the pupil in first, second, third, and fourth reader classes an adequate comprehension of what he is reading; he is therefore not sufficiently prepared for plunging into the difficult reading of high school texts.

Second, classes in interpretation should start in the high school. It is here that the first really conscious processes of learning begin. The principles of grouping, group sequence, group value, group motive, and central idea are easily understood at the high school level. These principles will be of inestimable value during the remaining years of high school and throughout college.

Third, if instruction in these scientific principles is left until college, the student will have been deprived of a fundamental criteria that would have enabled him to understand completely whatever he reads in his history, science, mathematics, philosophy, psychology, or sociology, as well as in his English, speech, or drama.

I hope to show that the proper study of the printed page, together with the very definite principles involved in true interpretation, is the sine qua non of all learning from books.

At this point I must make a distinction between the terms oral reading and interpretation. Many people use the terms interchangeably and think of interpretation only as reading aloud; still others limit the term to public reading for entertainment; and still others think of it loosely as giving one's opinion about anything.

True interpretation is the reading of the writing of someone other than the reader and the endeavor to comprehend that author's meaning; it is the ability to feel the author's emotion and to portray by the coloring of the voice and the little nuances of inflection and pause the author's intent. The term interpretative reading is redundant; all reading is interpretative, unless the reader himself is the author.

The chief error in the terms interpretative and oral reading rests in their almost universal acceptance as referring to the presentation of literature for entertainment. In reality, entertainment is probably the least of the aims for which interpretation is employed. Reading should be an effort on the part of the reader to get the thought and feeling of the author, to hold it in mind until it is thoroughly grasped, and to give this thought so that the auditors may understand and feel exactly what the author intended. Merely being able to understand and recognize words on the printed page does not guarantee that the reader is an accurate interpreter; it does not mean that the one who reads aloud with an orotund voice quality is necessarily giving his hearers the thought and feeling intended by the author; it does not mean that he actually understands everything he is reading. Many teachers are deceived by the apparent fluency of a pupil's oral effort and think that because the reader can produce a certain variety of inflections and colorful tones in a continuous flow of well enunciated words that he is interpreting accurately what he reads. Very often the reading is unconscious imitation and not based on a sound knowledge of the underlying principles of interpretation, principles which have been sneered at and belittled by those who are quick to criticize anything that appears to them as elocutionary.

It is true that the glaring affectations of some professional elocutionists have turned sensible people against anything that shows the slightest evidence of having its origin in elocutionary technique. Unfortunately, this aversion in influential educational circles has caused a setback in the very type of learning that is fundamental to all true education from books.

There are some who will say that common sense is all that is necessary in interpreting a paragraph in any text. They forget that a very small per cent of the students of high school age possess what is generally accepted as common sense; they forget that in over a hundred and fifty years of American civilization, the legal talent of our nation has not been able to depend on common sense for the interpretation of our laws. Common sense is a rarity even in adults and congressmen. Common sense may be defined as an instinctive ability to reason soundly without consciously going through all the steps of formal logic. If you ask one hundred people individually whether they think they have common sense, one hundred per cent will admit modestly that they have. But set these same hundred adults down to do a simple original problem in plane geometry, and you'll find an appalling drop in the percentage of right answers. Why? They haven't the common sense.

If adults in general lack common sense, how can we expect our boys and girls of high school age to have it? They must be taught common sense, or rather, taught to recognize an instinct toward reason and develop it. One of the first principles for developing common sense is to learn to read with reason; to apply the principles of interpretation to the reading of reasonable texts. When these youngsters have acquired the ability to get accurately the meaning of what they read, they will be well on the road to acquiring the ability to reason, even without the knowledge of formal logic.

Most children learn to read by subconsciously memorizing the inflections in the melody of others whom they hear read; few learn to read by applying the principles of phrasing, group sequence, group value, group motive and central idea. Later, when these principles are understood, a whole new world of ideas is open for discovery.

During the past forty years a few colleges and universities have included interpretation in their speech curriculum; in specialized schools of speech and drama this course is regarded as of primary importance. If students are forced to wait until

*Taken from the December 1951 issue of The Rostrum of NFL.

college for such a course, the six or eight years best suited to the forming of learning habits have gone by, and these principles are no longer as readily assimilated. At the college level students are too impatient to take seriously what they believe to be elementary technique no longer necessary for such "grown-ups" as college sophomores. They are anxious to get into the courses of acting, public speaking and debate, or they are interested in social studies, science, or philosophy, not realizing that in all these subjects there are difficult texts to interpret. True understanding of these texts depends upon their ability to understand the author's intent.

The technique of interpretation is as essential to the subject as is the technique of composition to the student of writing, the technique of drawing to the student of art, or the technique of trigonometry to the study of angles. It is impossible to understand history, its form and content, its predictions for the future, without knowing how to interpret accurately the historian's text. A knowledge of the technique of interpretation is essential to all true learning from books.

As director of student teaching in English, speech, and drama for our college, I visit a great many high schools during the course of a year, observing my seniors who are fulfilling their nine weeks' requirement in practice teaching. Eight out of ten schools are glaring examples of what poor teaching of reading has accomplished in the grades. Where an attempt is being made to teach interpretation, a significant difference is seen in the reading ability of juniors and seniors compared to that of the freshmen and sophomores. The high school student is at an age where he can understand the principles of interpretation and can apply them constructively to his reading. It is in high school, at the best age for learning habits to be formed and the reasons for them understood, that interpretation can be taught with an assurance that these principles will be carrried on through four years of college with definite profit to the student.

The high schools must shoulder the responsibility and make the most of their opportunity to introduce classes in interpretation as early in the curriculum as possible.

Many high schools have classes in public speaking and debate, although many do not touch oral expression at all. Few high schools teach interpretation, thinking, erroneously of course, that a professional school of speech and drama is the place for it. The high school superintendent or principal who thinks thus is forgetting that interpretation is as fundamental to the acquisition of all advanced knowledge as is grammar, composition, language, science and mathematics to the understanding of life itself. The earlier this subject is taught, the more time will the student have to apply these principles to his subsequent efforts at learning.

In many up-to-date high schools and academies there is some attention paid to the extra-curricular activities of discussion and debate. If ever there is a need for accuracy in interpretation, it is here. The interpreting of evidence as it is read in the various authoritative documents; the ability to read verbatim a quotation from an authority so that there is no question as to its bearing upon the point at issue; the keenness in discerning an insincere inflection; or the discovery of a fallacy in an opponent's reasoning can be effective only when the debater has perfected his ability to understand accurately what he has read and can present it effectively to his audience.

Interpretation is not a specialized subject needed only by those who expect to become radio announcers, actors, lecturers, or television comedians; it is needed by everyone who would learn how to study by making sure of his ability to comprehend exactly everything he reads.

I am well aware that every high school principal knows that the correct interpretation of any text is necessary to the complete understanding of it, but what I am afraid they do NOT know is that a study of the technique of interpretation at the high school level is just as necessary as is the study of the rules of arithmetic to the understanding of arithmetical problems. If a child cannot interpret the sense of a written problem in algebra, he cannot be expected to get the right answer. The understanding of grammar is as necessary to the accomplishment of good composition as it is to the understanding of what is written by someone else, but the techniques of composition and grammar are not enough to insure complete visual and auditory imagery to such an extent that what he sees on the printed page instantly creates an auditory image as if he were actually HEARING rather than seeing the ideas expressed in the text. The acquisition of this ability demands a thorough training in the technique of interpretation.

I have pointed out that the grade schools are failing in preparing the child for careful study through inadequate methods in teaching common reading; that beginning the study of interpretation at the college level is too late to be of greatest value to any except those who expect to become actors, entertainers or lawyers who usually have three more years of graduate work; that the high school is the logical place for the study of interpretation; and that this study is essentially fundamental to all satisfactory learning from books.

I should like to appeal to all high school superintendents and principals to inaugurate an adequate unit in speech in the sophomore year of high school and to see that that unit comprises at least one half year of study in interpretation. I want to dispel if possible any preconceived idea that interpretation is solely a cultural course belonging to the college level. I urge that the high schools no longer assume that the work done in the grades in common reading is an adequate preparation for interpreting the texts that will be studied in future years.

I appeal to the careful, analytical, and unprejudiced minds of the principals of high schools to consider this problem seriously, to peruse thoughtfully one or more of the authoritative texts on the subject, and to decide if possible to give these suggestions a try-out. If this is done, I am sure these guardians of our youth, these men and women who are responsible for training the boys and girls at the impressionable high school age, will see the wisdom of providing them a means for acquiring a better and more far-reaching knowledge of life as contained in literature and in the various textual materials of the day.

This year the programs of the Ohio Conference for Speech Education has a two-fold purpose. As in

the past, the four cooperating organizations meet to pool their resources for aid in the solutions of the problems of the speech teacher and speech and hearing therapists. The program follows the general pattern of the three previous years but there is an added attraction this year. It is the dedication of the new Speech and Theatre Building at Ohio University in Athens.

The new building has been built for the purpose of housing the department. It was designed and built to satisfy all the needs of a complete collegiate department of speech, undergraduate and graduate. It is well worth the trip alone to be able to inspect the entire building. The program has been the object of special attention by Dr. Kantner and the Ohio University Conference Committee.

COLLEGE DEBATE HANDBOOK
(Continued from Page 23)

The word "permanent" then, can easily become the focus of the question. Must the control be permanently applied, or must there be only the possibility of an application in special cases at anytime—so that controls are always possible but only applied in a reasonable necessity or in a justifiable situation. The affirmative presenting such a case and standing for it earnestly and with a reasonable plausibility has a chance to win by superior debating.

A debate does not belong in the realm of moral right or wrong — it belongs in the realm of determination of the better policy to follow. Debate is advocacy and defense; it is an argument over the why and wherefores; it is an adventure in reasonableness. To be reasonable, things must be expedient, justifiable, practicable, workable. When there is a need that can be shown for an action, fine, but real debating, it seems to me depends upon many other things than simple "need", and forces one to consider the things that impel one to make up his mind, decide, and act. So there are impelling motives involved and convincing evidence related; the final act of decision is always a matter of evaluation.

International Debating

SAA Committee Reports On Present Status of Foreign Debate Trips

At the 1951 National Speech Convention held at the Hotel Stevens, Chicago, Ill., December 27-29, the Committee on International Debating made its report to the S. A. A. Council. The report is too long and detailed to quote in its complete form, hence we have taken the liberty of cutting and abbreviating.

In 1951 no American teams were sent abroad. However, two British teams came to the United States, one from Cambridge and one from Oxford. From Cambridge Messrs. Jack Ashley and Ronald G. Waterhouse toured the Eastern States from March 11 to April 21, holding 24 debates in the Mid West and far West. The Oxford team travelled in the East and Mid West, appearing on 44 different campuses in the recent fall months. This team was composed of Mr. Richard Travene and William Rees-Mogg.

The committee met in Chicago Sept. 7-8 and selected two American teams to travel this season. Mr. Benjamin F. Crane of the University of Iowa and Mr. Joseph R. Barse of Northwestern University were chosen to visit Great Britain during Feb. and March of this year. Their debates abroad are being arranged by the Institute of International Education and the English Speaking Union.There is a possibility that this team may get to travel to Israel also.

The second team was chosen to tour Australia and is composed of David L. Hunter, University of So. California and Mr. Henry L. Kiker, Jr., University of Arizona. Their debates in Australia are being arranged by the Vice Chancellors of the Universities and the National Union of Australian University Students. This expensive trip was made possible by a generous grant, arranged by the Institute of International Education, from the British Dominions Fund of the Carnegie Corporation.

Much of the work and concern of the Committee has been the financing of the debate trips. In addition to the teams for England and Australia, debate trips from India and Japan are under consideration.

The committee held hearings at its Chicago meeting last fall for the various applicants. There were about 51 applicants from whom the teams given above were selected. The applicants were given interviews by the committee, and were asked to present five minute speeches before a board of judges composed of A. Craig Baird, Iowa; H. L. Ewbank, Wisconsin; Glen E. Mills, Northwestern; Richard L. Murphy, Illinois; Herold T. Ross, DePauw; Miss Mildred E. Adams, Institute of International Education; and Gordon F. Hostettler, Temple University.

The original Committee in charge was:

Prof. Annabel Hagood, Alabama, South.

Prof. Orville Pence, Far West.

Prof. Richard Murphy, Ill. Mid West.

Prof. Brooks Quimby, East. New England.

Prof. Gordon F. Hostettler, Mid Atlantic.

CLIPPINGS FROM HERE & THERE

"The League's supply of Debate Handbooks is exhausted. The national committee handling this project refused to assume the financial obligation involved in printing surplus copies. The only additional copies which may, therefore, be available are in the hands of the printer. Only a limited stock is available at the price of $2 per set. It is doubtful that any copies will be available after mid-November. — Minnesota High School League Bulletin. Ed. Comment — We still have a few sets for sale available to California high schools. Address the editor.

The annual Radio Debate was held Sunday, November 18, 1951 at 11:30 a. m., Eastern Standard time. This program originates with The Reviewing Stand of Northwestern University, presided over by Dean James H. McBurney of the School of Speech, Northwestern University. Copies may be obtained by writing to Dr. McBurney, at 10c each. The Ohio High School Speech League expects to mail a transcript of this debate to each Ohio high school member of its League.—Abbreviated from The Ohio High School Speech League Newsletter.

News Notes and Personals

It gives us a lot of pleasure to report that Charles Masten, debate coach at Emporia (Kans.) State Teachers, who suffered a severe attack of brain fever as the debate season was getting under way this fall, has so far recovered that he is back on the job and going strong again.

First place at the Westcoast Tournament held at Fresno, Calif. in men's debate was won by the team from Pacific Lutheran College, which emerged from eight rounds as the only undefeated team. This team, composed of Ericson and Rieke met only one team of the group tied for second, which were: University of Redlands, Idaho State College, Whittier College, and University of Southern California.

In women's debate, two S. C. teams tied for first, and Utah State, Redlands, and University of Utah tied for 2nd. Idaho State won the Lower Division Men, with C. O. P. and L. A. A. C. tied for second. Lower Division Women: Seattle Pacific College first, and P. C. C. second. In Speech events the results were as follows: ORATORY: Men, U. D. 1st. tie Dean Pic'l, U. S. C. and Maxwell, Oregon State. L. D. Men: Peterson, Idaho State, 2nd; Jansen, S. C. U. D. Women: Wilson, Linfield College; Payne, Pasadena College. L. D. Women: Longman, San Diego State; Blais, Stockton, 2nd.

EXTEMPORE: U. D. Men — Zimmerman, Oregon State, 2nd. Tie: McClure, Whittier; Hatlen, Pacific Lutheran, and Shelley, S. C. L. D. Men: 1st, Morrow, L. A. A. C.; 2nd, Jansen, S. C. U. D. Women: 1st, Durham, University of Utah; 2nd, Squire, U. C. L. A. L. D. Women: 1st, Schief, Pacific Lutheran; 2nd, Keller, Occidental College. IMPROMPTU SPEAKING: U. D. Men—1st, Rieke, Pacific Lutheran; 2nd, Donaldson, St. Martin's College. L. D. Men—1st, Custer, San Francisco State; 2nd, Osborn, Pacific Lutheran. U. D. Women: 1st, Francis, S. C.; 2nd, Boltes, Idaho State. L. D. Women: 1st, Tompkins, L. A. C. C.

Sixty-six teams from 31 colleges in 6 states competed in the tournament at Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 1st. Six affirmative teams and five negative teams remained undefeated at the end of four rounds. They were as follows:

Affirmative teams:
- Pennsylvania State College (Men) ..... B
- St. Peter's College ..... A
- Fordham University ..... B
- Howard University
- University of Virginia
- University of Pennsylvania ..... A

Negative teams:
- Lehigh University
- Bucknell University ..... A
- University of Pennsylvania C
- George Washington University A
- George Washington University B

Prof. W. H. Veatch of Washington State reports one of the best groups of freshmen debaters he has had in his several years of coaching.

Last winter, just as he was finishing the first semester at Northwestern University and nearing completion of work on his degree, Robert S. Cathcart was beckoned back into the U. S. Navy by Uncle Sam. His address at the present time is 9315 Fort Hamilton Parkway, Brooklyn 9, New York. Bob has been fortunate in being able to keep his family near him.

Student Activities acknowledges the receipt of the programs and Program announcements of the following Speech Conferences and Tournaments:

Annual Oklahoma Speech and Drama Activities Conference, University of Oklahoma, Dec. 14-15.

Twenty - second Intercollegiate Tournament, Linfield College, McMinnville, Ore., March 6-8.

University of Nebraska Debate and Discussion Conference, Lincoln, Nebr., Feb. 22-23.

Twelfth Annual Millsaps College Debate Tournament, Jackson, Dec. 13, '51.

Baylor University Forensic Tournament, Waco, Texas, Feb. 1-2.

Purdue University Debate Conference, Lafayette, Ind., Dec. 13-15, '51.

Sixth Annual Northwest T. K. A. Speech Tournament, Missoula, Montana., April 25-26.

Grand National Forensic Tournament, Fredericksburg, Va., April 9-13.

West Point National Tournament, U. S. Military Academy, April.

Twentieth South Atlantic Forensic Tournament, Hickory, N. C., Feb. 28-March 1.

Speech Activities is no longer the office of the Secretary-Treasurer of the American Forensic Association, hence the combination offers of membership in one and subscription to the other are no longer valid. The new Secretary-Treasurer of the American Forensic Association is Prof. Annabel D. Hagood, of University of Alabama, at University, Alabama.

On January 6, 1952, William Zucchero presented a recital, "Darkness at Noon", by Sidney Kingsley, based upon a novel by Arthur Kostler. This recital is the third in a series of graduate recitals to be presented at Kent State University, under the direction of Earl E. Curtis, Professor of Speech.

Mr. Zucchero portrayed eleven different characters, in his cutting and interpretation of "Darkness at Noon". He leaves in February to continue graduate work at the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor.

School of Speech of Kent State University on December 6, 1951, sponsored a conference on "Speech in Industry". This was the first conference of its kind in this area and proved to be very successful. The purposes of the conference were three-fold:

1. To provide a meeting-ground for industries to exchange ideas for improving speech communication.
2. To promote better speech and better speech training in industry.
3. To enable industry and education to work together for mutual benefit.

The planning committee members of the conference were: Joseph Arthur, Director of Industrial Education, Timkin Roller Bearing Company, Ninde Alspach, Manager Goodyear Industrial University, Goodyear Tire & Rubber Company, James N. Holm, Professor of Public Speaking and Director of Forensics at Kent State University, and E. Turner Stump, Head of the School of Speech, Kent State University.

It was a one day conference beginning at 5:30 in the evening of December 6, 1951. Such topics as "The Need For Effective Speech in Management-Employee Relations", "Teaching Men To Run a Meeting,"

"Teaching Men To Talk to Groups," "Teaching Men to Talk to Person-to-Person Situations", and "What Colleges Are Doing To Help Industry Solve Its Speech Problems".

Due to the success of the conference, tentative plans have been made to make this an annual affair. Both educators and persons in industry received the ideas and participated enthusiastically in the program.

The radio division of the school of speech at Kent State University under the direction of Walton D. Clarke recently acquired twin Magnecorder tape recorder, which enables WKSU-FM, the Kent State University broadcasting station, to broadcast programs of the National Association of Educational Broadcasters Tape Network.

Kent State University is an active member in good standing of the NAEB. In the past two years radio broadcasting at Kent State University has increased from 10 hours a week to 27½ hours a week on a 5-day week basis of regularly scheduled programs, and plans are being made to increase the broadcasting to a 40-hour week in the near future.

On January 26, 1952, Kent State University sponsored a drama clinic for high schools of Northeastern Ohio. The drama clinic, under the direction of Professor G. Harry Wright, director of dramatic activities of Kent State University, offers a varied program for students and teachers of drama in the high school. Included in the program are demonstrations in make-up, playcasting, arena production, or "theatre-in-the round", and a complete three-act play. This year's play will be the Kent State University Theatre production of "Medea", under the direction of G. Harry Wright.

In addition to the demonstrations, two outstanding theatre authorities are coming to Kent State University to discuss widely varying phases of high school production. Frederick Buerky, Technical Director of Wisconsin Theatre, will discuss, "How to Produce Plays in High School Without Money", and Professor R. C. Hunter, of Ohio Wesleyan, will speak on "Producing Classics in High School".

Tau Kappa Alpha will hold its annual National Conference at the Case Institute of Technology, Cleveland, Ohio April 3-5, 1952. The program plan for the Conference includes 5 rounds of debate, five of discussion, and a model initiation. Speaker-of-the-year Awards will be given as usual. Tau Kappa Alpha is planning a Debate Manual to be issued by the Dryden Press in November, 1952. There will be 15 chapters written by different directors of debate at various chapters.

Pace College, New York City, has joined the Cathedral of Learning in planning a skyscraper college. The college plans to spend a million dollars in converting a 16-story building at 41 Park Row into college halls and recitation rooms. A swimming pool is to be included in one of the basements and a large gymnasium will be included in the alterations. There will be a library on the eighth and ninth floors. The second floor will become the auditorium and the cafeteria. From the third floor to the fifteenth there will be classrooms and offices. The 16th floor will be given over to administration offices, alumni office, and Board of Trustees room. It is planned to have a penthouse on the roof, given over to a water tower and air conditioning equipment and other machinery.

The South Atlantic Forensic Tournament, held at Lenoir Rhyne College, is scheduled for Feb. 28-March 1, 1952 at Hickory, North Carolina. A full line of contests is held at this tournament. Two teams from one college, unless teams are solely Affirmative and Negative, in which case four are allowed. Prof. Albert Keiser is the director.

Prof. Bruno Jacob, Secretary of the NFL states that the National High School contests this year will eliminate the declamation trio and will hold only the following: Debate, Original Oratory, and Boys Extempe and Girls Extempe. The contests will be held. according to information given the Editor by Southern California High School Coaches, at Boston University.

Two of the teams which rated second place at the Fresno Tournament last fall tied at the Caltech meet Saturday. February 9th for the first place in Men's Upper Division. Neither of these teams met the winner of the Fresno meet at earlier tournaments. They are U. S. C. and Redlands.

The Southern Pacific District of the West Point Tournament held its Selection Committee Meeting at Pasadena under the Chairmanship of Prof. John Ackley of San Diego. Three of the four teams were chosen and will attend West Point: Univ. of So. California, Pepperdine College, and San Diego. The fourth team will either be Univ. of Arizona or Univ. of Utah, depending on which finishes with the better record after the next tournament, which refers to either the Linfield Tournament about March 1st and the Arizona Tournament March 13-15. The Univ. of Redlands team, which won at West Point last spring, is invited automatically to return and defend its title. This team will be the first one that has actually ever had such a chance. Previously the winning college has sent a different team as its winners had graduated, which means that Spicer and Wilson were the first Juniors to win at West Point. These two men also had the distinction of being rated first and second place debate speakers after the first eight rounds of debate last April at West Point.

The California State High School championship meet will be held at Santa Barbara State College this year for the first time, May 17. This contest has formerly been held at Bakersfield on even years. On the odd years it is held at Fresno State College.

RE-EXAMINATION OF STRATEGIC DEBATE

(Continued from Page 11)

strategy is the soundness of the logic behind the case presented. Strategic devices considered by themselves are a moral just as statistics are a moral. Each debater must decide whether the strategy which he uses is within the limits of the question. If he fails in this it is the responsibility of his opposition to reveal this fact.

To summarize, then, Mr. Harlan and Professors Courtney and Capp have over-exaggerated the good and bad elements of strategic debating. It is an integral part of all debating. It is inherent in the limitation, selection, organization and delivery of the constructive and the rebuttal speeches. But debate as all public speaking, carries with it a basic ethical responsibility. Misquotation, false facts, and warped definitions and all the rest are merely unethical debating, whether the plan is straight out of the handbook or a new interpretation.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF COLLEGIATE DEBATE

(Continued from Page 8)

doned contest debating returned to the activity. A great deal of criticism was levelled at the tournament from the group of discussion and non-decision debate factions, but thus far the tournament has ignored the carping criticisms and has gained ground steadily. The tournament seems in a fair way to absorb contest debating. The old triangulars and leagues soon died out, and only an occasional debate on the home platform is maintained.

The fourth period was marked by considerable writing on debate and by the appearance of several new texts. One or two of these books openly championed the persuasion theory of debate—that is, discussion of opinions and beliefs in debate—and adopted argumentation that was concerned with logic and evidence into persuasion[18]. Most of the writing on debate during this decade appeared in the professional speech journals and in the publications of the honor societies.

During this period the junior college arrived and a debating honor society was formed for this level.[19] Also the high schools were organized into the National Forensic League. The National University Extension Association began the selection of a national debate subject for high schools as Pi Kappa Delta was doing for the colleges and began to work cooperatively with the National Forensic League. This league and the junior college society adopted the National Tournament idea, thus giving a great impetus to the college movement already begun.

The Fifth Decade, 1933-1943
The Tournament Takes Over

As debate entered upon its fifth decade the tournament rapidly took its place. It extended from its beginnings at Southwestern College, Winfield, Kansas, which held the first college debate tournament, both East and West till it reached the coasts. Important tournaments arose in various sections of the country, as for example the Linfield College Tournament at McMinnville, Oregon, and the Savage Forensic Tournament at Durant, Oklahoma.

Many rather insignificant small meets and tournaments appeared like mushrooms in a farm pasture. The tournament idea became too popular and too many meets were scheduled. Not all of them prospered and gradually some tournaments were discontinued, and gradually a balance was reached. Three types of tournaments assumed shape: (1) The Debate tournament (Limited to debate alone). This type varies in number of rounds and days given to the tournament. (2) The Speech Event Meet. Composed of the contests in Oratory, Extemporaneous Speaking, Impromptu Speaking, Interpretative Reading, Discussion and Other Events. (3) A combination Debate and Speech Events Tournament. This type of tournament often runs two and one-half days, while the limited types are often one-day affairs.

The tournament has proved to be an elastic and adjustable type of debate and speech contest arrangement. It fits into a scheme of brief and concentrated rounds for one event, or for many events carried over a period of two or three days. It may be a practice affair, a championship affair, or a novice affair. It may have a director for each event, and a board of management composed of the directors of the events.

The directors of the tournaments soon began to expand and utilize the various possibilities of the tournament. During the fifth decade of debate the tournament established its superiority as a method of dealing with debate and speech events and contests.

First, it demonstrated its success as an economic method of carrying on Speech contests and debates. By centralizing the debates and speech events, the cost of travel per debate and per contest was greatly reduced.

Second, there was a big advantage in giving contestants and debaters many more opportunities to take part in events, hence offered greatly increased training.

Third, the contestant and debater found that he had a chance to correct his errors and mistakes in subsequent rounds while still at the tournament. Thus it offered growth and development opportunities at the moment of concentrated interest.

Fourth, the judging was more expert as the coaches and former debaters were used. The coaches in the average tournament are much superior to the judge unfamiliar with the customs and practices of academic debate.

Fifth, the social aspect of the tournament is one of its greatest values. The students and debate directors, etc., get acquainted with each other, and students and teachers from a section or district soon come to know each other, and the social aspects of the meet can be enlarged upon. Taking an evening off for a dance, or setting aside one meal for a tournament dinner or banquet where the awards to the winners are given out are common features of tournaments.

The main objection that has been advanced against the tournament is that it loads the student too heavily, and makes too big a demand upon his strength and vitality.

The average student however, pooh-poohs this objection, and the history of tournaments thus far has not given the objector much chance to gain a hearing or to prove his case against the tournament.

Toward the end of this fifth period in the history of debating World War II came and knocked it for a row. Debating was practically halted in its tracks. Other speech events suffered likewise. The war years took the debaters and speakers along with the rest of the young men, and practically all debate and speech contests ceased for the duration.

Sixth Decade, 1943-1953
The Recovery

When the war permitted the return of debaters to college, the beginning two or three years of this decade was gone. However, with the return of some of the pre-war debaters to the campus, and the training of new debaters, Speech contests and events began to come back. Progress was slow at first. Without the tournament to help it would have been much slower. The tournament furnished the setting that appealed to debaters and speech contestants.

A second factor in recovery was the appeal of travel to the debater. The trips to tournaments became such an integral part of debate that the student merged the appeals and ascribed his love of travel and his love of contesting to his love for debate and forensics, thus enthusiasts were created. It took debate

about five years to recover from the war. We mean by this statement that it took at least this long for debate to get back to the popularity and to the position that it held before 1940.

The South took the lead, the Central area followed, and the two coasts trailed back to position. The main tournaments in the various regions were restored.

The sixth period or the beginning second half century has so far produced only one significant event, beyond recovery from war's damages and a return to the normal. That one event is the coming of the National Tournament at West Point. For the last five years, West Point has entertained a tournament truly national in scope. The tournament has been marked by such skilful and well-planned management, that the West Point Tournament has been hailed as the best and the superior tournament of the country.

The country was divided into eight districts. A board of selectors was chosen for each district and these selectors, who are debate directors at various colleges, choose the allotments of colleges which are to represent the district annually at West Point. Thirty-two teams are thus selected from the eight districts. The winner of the year before and the West Point debate team are added, making 34 teams in all which meet at the military academy near the 20th to the 25th of April each year to hold one of the nation's most interesting and most skilfully managed tournaments. Most of the best teams of the country are thus assembled to compete with each other for eight preliminary rounds and for four final rounds, twelve in all. No claims are made to a National Championship, but all persons admit that the winners after twelve rounds against the pick of the nation's debate teams are at least superior debaters. This is enough for it is season's records, not individual wins or championships that attract debaters and their directors.

As the new decade, the seventh, approaches the debating world looks with great satisfaction upon sixty years of achievement, upon its firm establishment and demonstration of educational worth and democratic service. A legislative system in a democratic republic such as ours cannot work without the process of debate on its floors and in its committees. Academic debating contributes to the skill in debate of future legislators and congressmen and thus performs a function well nigh indispensable to democracy. Perhaps that is why it has triumphed over criticism and hostility, and confounded its enemies with its vigor and vitality.

The Second Parliament of the States was held July 5 to 7 at Ohio State. The principal honors went to students of Hammond High School of Indiana. The date which had been selected in order to make use of the new Union Building was not a good one, coming so shortly after a holiday. After setting the event on this date, the Union Building did not open at that date but it is expected that it will open this fall. Sanction has been granted by O. H. S. A. A. and is requested nationally for the Third Parliament to be held in 1952. At present it seems best to return to the August date (as used in 1950), near the middle of that month, for the 1952 Parliament.

WESTERN SPEECH

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